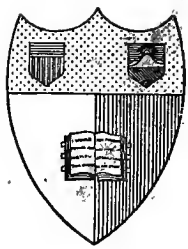
HOW TO WRITE AN ESSAY

W. T. WEBB



HOW TO WRITE AN ESSAY

WITH SAMPLE ESSAYS AND SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS

BY

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PREFACE

In all Examinations, whether in England or in India, the Essay is more and more being employed as a test of the ability of candidates to write clear, simple, and correct English. Thus we find, "All candidates will be expected to attempt the Essay, to which special importance is attached."[1] To help the candidate to pass this test with some measure of success is the object of this book.

The eighty "Sample Essays" do not aim at either originality or high literary merit; they are meant to represent the kind of Essay that a student might be expected to write in an Examination. And since necessarily no two writers are altogether alike in their mode of expressing themselves, the style of these essays has been to some extent diversified. They also vary in length, because in some examinations short, in others longer, Essays are required of the candidates.

The chapter on spelling and Punctuation has for convenience been placed last; but a knowledge of these subjects is of course one of the first essentials to successful composition.

Of the 1320 "Subjects for Essays," many have been set in various Public Examinations.

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1. University of London Regulations for the Matriculation Examination in English.

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CHAPTER I

Subjects and Outlines

1. **Introduction.**—Literary composition is the art of expressing thought or feeling effectively by words. The thinking must be done first; ideas and opinions must be formed before the attempt is made to put them into words; the writer should know beforehand exactly what he means. Hence interest and experience in a subject are essential to him. What he wants, as Professor Raleigh remarks, "is not an abundance of facts so much as the connexions between the facts. It is the connexion of things with each other, the ability to go from point to point, which marks literature." Thus the art of composition is governed by certain principles and methods which the young writer must learn and carry into practice in order to write well. The aim of the following pages is to explain the most important of these principles with special reference to the writing of Essays.

2. **Classification of Essays.**—Essays may be divided into four classes[1]:—

I. *Narrative* Essays, or Essays that consist of the narration of some event. Such events may be historical or legendary occurrences; or they may be stories true or imaginary; or they may be biographical sketches of some well-known person.

II. *Descriptive* Essays, or Essays that consist of the description of some place or thing. These may be animals, plants, fruits, or minerals; towns, ports, ships, and buildings of all kinds, as towers, temples, museums, bridges; countries, islands, mountains, seas, rivers, canals; aspects of nature; or, lastly, manufactured articles.

III. *Reflective* Essays, or Essays that consist of reflection upon some topic, which is generally of an abstract nature. These topics may be habits, qualities, feelings, and capacities; or they may be subjects of a social and political character.

[1] Some writers add a fifth class, viz., Argumentative Essays; but subjects under this head are comparatively few, and may appropriately be included in Classes III and IV.

IV. *Expository* Essays, or Essays that consist of the exposition or explanation of subjects. These may be comprised under the head of—first, institutions, industries, occupations, and phrase of life; secondly, scientific topics; and thirdly, literary topics.

3. **Table of Essays.**—Accordingly the four classes of Essays may be tabulated thus :—

I. Narrative Essays

(*a*) Historical events and legends.
(*b*) Incidents, stories, etc.
(*c*) Biographies.

II. Descriptive Essays

(*a*) Animals, plants, fruits, minerals.
(*b*) Towns, ports, ships, buildings.
(*c*) Countries, islands, mountains, seas, rivers.
(*d*) Aspects and phenomena of nature.
(*e*) Manufactured articles.

III. Reflective Essays

(*a*) Habits, qualities, etc.
(*b*) Social, political, and domestic topics.

IV. Expository Essays

(*a*) Institutions, industries, occupations, etc.
(*b*) Scientific topics.
(*c*) Literary topics.

It should be remembered that the above classification does not pretend to be exact. Very often description, narration, and reflection may be combined in the same composition; the line that divides the descriptive essay from the expository, and the expository from the reflective, is sometimes narrow and difficult to define, while, as we shall see later, it is possible for the same subject to be placed in any one of the four classes according to the point of view from which it is regarded.

4. **Choice of Subject.**—In an Essay Examination it is usual to give several subjects for the candidate to choose from. Read the subjects through, and make your selection as quickly as possible. But while it is important not to lose time over the

choice of a subject, do not make your choice without due consideration, and, having done so, keep to the subject chosen. To start on one subject and then leave it for another, involves a serious waste of time. Choose that subject which you know most about or which is most congenial to your taste. It is of small use to handle a subject of which you know little or nothing; though, if only one subject is given, the attempt must of course be made. Hence arises the importance, for the composition of essays, of some stock of general knowledge, whether historical, geographical, social, political, scientific, or literary, on the part of the writer; and it is mainly to provide him with materials for such study that the ample list of Subjects for Essays has been appended to this volume. With this end in view, good literature should be studied, especially the Essays of Goldsmith, Addison, and Macaulay; he should be a reader of history and books of general information; the events of the day should be followed in a good newspaper. He should also cultivate habits of observation and reflection, noting the varying aspects and processes of nature, the different phases and conditions of life in different places; the form and ways of animals and plants; human customs, feelings, actions, and pursuits. He should keep a commonplace-book, in which to enter his impressions, or useful extracts from books that he has read. By these methods the young writer will furnish himself with sufficient ideas for the composition of a plain Essay on almost any ordinary topic.

5. **Treatment of Subject.**—The subject once selected, the next thing to be done is to make up your mind as to its meaning and the method of treatment. This is usually an easy task, but sometimes a subject is either vague in itself or is vaguely worded; and this vagueness is sometimes intentional, with the object of given the candidate the more freedom in dealing with the topic before him. Thus the subject of "Speed in travelling" can be treated in several different ways. It can be treated historically and descriptively—from the ox-cart to the motor car, from the sailing ship to the Atlantic liner. Or, it may form an expository essay, and the various devices and forces by which swiftness of locomotion is attained may be set forth, such as turbines, aeroplanes, steam, electricity. Or, again, it can be treated reflectively, and the advantages and disadvantages of speed in travelling may be enumerated and commented upon. To combine effectively all three methods of treatment would

usually make an essay too long for examination purposes, and should therefore in most cases be avoided.

6. **Meaning of Subject.**—There may, however, be instances of vagueness which require special care and judgment on the part of the candidate. Thus, should the subject of the essay be "Charity" the question arises whether the examiner means by Charity "Kindness in general" or "Alms-giving." The former interpretation might no doubt be made to include the latter, but the subject thus becomes too extensive for a short essay, and it will be better for the candidate to adopt the latter and more usual interpretation, and treat of alms-giving in all its varied forms and developements. Again, in "The value of cheap literature" as the subject for an essay, the word *value* might mean either the good effects only or both the good and the bad effects resulting from the cheapening of literature. Further, the word *literature* might mean reading-matter generally or only standard reading-matter, excluding low-class newspapers and sensational stories. Here the best interpretation of the subject will be "The advantages of cheap reading-matter," as being that which was probably intended by the Examiner.

7. **Proverbs and Quotations.**—It is sometimes difficult for the candidate to grasp the significance of some of the proverbs and quotations often set as subjects for essays. Thus such a proverbial saying as "Virtue is its own reward" might at first sight puzzle the young essay-writer. It means that the inward sense of satisfaction in doing a virtuous action is sufficient reward to the doer, and that therefore we ought to do good at the bidding of duty and conscience, without thinking of or desiring any gain or advantage to ourselves from so doing. It is indeed antithetical to another proverb, "Honesty is the best policy," which suggest that it *pays* best to be honest or honourable in one's conduct. With a view to lessening this difficulty, explanatory notes have been added to many of the proverbs, etc. contained in the list of Subjects for Essays already referred to. Similar notes have also been appended to a few other subjects that seemed to need elucidation.[1]

8. **Digressions.**—The true and exact meaning of the Subject being settled, keep to it in writing your Essay, and do not introduce topics that do not properly belong to it. If, for

[1] These annotated Subjects may be usefully expanded into Essays by the student.

instance, the subject of the essay is "A journey by mail-cart" (or mail-coach), do not spend time in describing the journey to the place where you joined the mail-cart or from the place where you left it. Or, should the subject be "Borrowing money," keep to the evils usually resulting from such borrowing, and do not dilate upon the disadvantages or losses arising from *lending* money. Occasional digressions are permissible in a long essay but not in the short compositions required in Examinations. This fault is one to be specially guarded against by the inexperienced writer, who is very apt to wander away from his subject into all sorts of side topics, till the unity and coherence of his essay is completely lost.

9. **The Outline.**—The true remedy for this defect is a good skeleton framework or outline. Sometimes, in an Examination, an outline is given for you to expand into an essay. In that case be careful to follow it closely, and do not introduce extraneous matter or deviate from the order in which its topics are arranged. Never start upon an essay without having an outline of your proposed composition before you. Even practised authors arrange their ideas in their heads, if they do not actually set them down on paper, before they begin to write. If you commence by setting down the first idea that occurs to you, without knowing what you are going to say next, the result is that your essay is an ill-assorted jumble, or has to be reconstructed and rewritten with much loss of time and pains. A proper, logical order in the setting forth of your ideas can be ensured only by the use of an outline.

10. **An Outline prevents repetition.**—Another advantage of an outline is that it prevents or should prevent the needless repetition later on in the essay of points that have already been discussed. When the details are once duly arranged under their different headings, the tendency of the writer to repeat himself is counteracted—a tendency which not only detracts from the worth of the essay, but causes a waste of valuable time to the candidate. If unfurnished with an outline, he will often fall quite unconsciously into these vain repetitions, and the fact that he has done so will dawn upon him only when he reads over his composition after it is written, and when it is often too late to make the requisite corrections. The slovenly practice of introducing (with "I ought to have mentioned before that," etc.) later on in the essay what should have been inserted previously, is also guarded against by the use of an outline.

11. **Study of the subject.**—Before commencing to draw up an outline, devote a short time to a careful consideration of the subject of the essay, and then cross-examine yourself about it, so as to draw out your ideas one after another. Such ideas should be jotted down as they occur to you, otherwise they may easily slip out of your mind and be lost beyond recall. Thus if the subject is "The life of savages," ask yourself what is meant exactly by the term "savages"? Can you recollect anything that you have read about the manners and customs of uncivilised peoples? What are the drawbacks of savage, as compared with civilised, life? Are these drawbacks counterbalanced by any advantages?—and so on. Jottings of this kind will help to provide material for the outline. Remember that for writing a short essay a large amount of material is not required, so that it is important to select for use only such matter as is essential to a clear treatment of the subject.

12. **Rules for Outlines.**—In drawing up an outline the following general rules should be observed:—

1. First set down the principal ideas that suggest themselves (these we will call the "main topics"), and denote them by numbers, (1), (2). (3), etc.

2. Next set down under each main topic the subordinate ideas that follow from them (these we will call the "sub-topics") and denote them by letters (a), (b), (c), etc.

3. Arrange both your main topics and your sub-topics in their natural order.

4. See that the ideas contained in the sub-topics are in keeping with the ideas contained in the main topics.

5. Word all your topics as briefly and compactly as possible.

13. **Example.**—To exemplify the application of these rules, take the subject of "Luxury". The first point is to describe what luxury is and in what ways it shows itself. Hence the first main topic will be a definition of luxury and a description of its manifestation in food, dress, houses and furniture, and vehicles, all these forming the sub-topics. Next we look at luxury from a historical standpoint and enquire into its prevalence in ancient and in modern time. The Romans under the Empire and the Americans may be taken respectively as examples. Thus we have a second main topic with two sub-topics. The

third main topic that naturally suggests itself is the evil effects of luxury. What are the chief of these? It causes a waste of capital, it fosters the vice of selfishness, it enervates men's bodies and minds, and it weakens and destroys nations. These will form the sub-topics. As our last main topic, we pass to the remedies for luxury, comprising the sub-topics—first, sumptuary laws, a remedy once approved both in the time of the Romans and in our own day, but now regarded as of little avail; secondly, the influence of an enlightened public opinion; thirdly, good moral training and the discipline of out-door games and manly exercises; and lastly, legislation hindering instead of encouraging the excessive accumulation of land and capital in the hands of a few. Presented in a tabular form, the outline will be as follows:

Subject: "*Luxury*"

Outline

(1) Definition of luxury; displayed in—
  (*a*) Food.
  (*b*) Dress.
  (*c*) Houses and furniture.
  (*d*) Carriages, motors, Pullman cars, etc.

(2) Its prevalence:—
  (*a*) In ancient times; *e.g.* under the Roman Empire.
  (*b*) In modern times; *e.g.* in the United States of America.

(3) Its effects:—
  (*a*) Wastes capital.
  (*b*) Fosters selfishness.
  (*c*) Enervates body and mind.
  (*d*) Weakens and destroys nations.

(4) Remedies:—
  (*a*) Sumptuary laws (of little use).
  (*b*) Influence of public opinion.
  (*d*) Laws unfavourable to the accumulation of wealth in a few hands.

14. **Classes of Essays considered.**—In order to help the student in drawing up outlines, we proceed to consider the different classes and sub-classes of essays, with a view to the kind of outline appropriate to each. The practised writer follows his own line of thought, and plans his essay accordingly; but the learner will find it better and easier to follow the method suggested here for his guidance.

15. **I. Narrative Essays.**—The aim of narration is to call up before the mind's eye of the reader a series of real or imaginary events, and to point out, if necessary, their cause and their relation to one another. Events are naturally arranged according to time, that is, in the order in which they occurred. In dealing with (*a*) Historical events and (*b*) Stories (§ 3), the time and place of the event should first be given, with the actor or actors, and what led up to it. The first paragraph should explain the situation; do this briefly, and rouse the interest of your reader as soon as possible. Remember that causes should precede effects. In the case of a story or imaginary event, time and place can be invented equally with the event itself; it is a gain to begin a story with "Not many years ago in one of the suburbs of London" or "It was in the year 1895, in one of the cities of central India, that" etc., or similar openings, since to do so makes the story seem more lively and real to the reader. The circumstances or background of the event with its different incidents come next; no detail should be omitted that adds to the vividness of the narrative, but tediousness should be guarded against. Then follows the climax or result, which must be kept back till the end of the story, otherwise its interest is spoilt. Any reflections that suggest themselves should be placed at the close, but do not obtrude your own religious or political opinions.

It should be noted that, since events vary somewhat in their nature and characteristics, the various schemes given below must be regarded as of general, and not of universal, application. The student will be able, without much difficulty, to introduce necessary modifications.

Thus the general plan suitable for such an essay will be as follows:—

(*a*) HISTORICAL EVENTS OR (*b*) STORIES

Scheme

(1) Introduction: date and place; actor or actors; origin or occasion.
(2) Circumstances and incidents.
(3) Result.
(4) Reflections or conclusions.

The following is an instance of the *application* of this scheme to the formation of an outline:—

Subject: " *Sir Philip Sidney and the Wounded Soldier* "

Outline

(1) In 1586, at the battle of Zutphen, Sir Philip Sidney fought bravely with the Dutch against the Spaniards.

(2) Seriously wounded and parched with thirst, water was brought him.

(3) Seeing a wounded soldier wistfully eyeing the bottle, he handed it to him.

(4) A noble instance of self-denial for the sake of others.

The outline may then be expanded into an essay:—

Essay

At the Battle of Zutphen fought in 1586, in the cause of liberty against the tyrant Philip of Spain, Sir Philip Sidney, who was serving with the English auxiliaries commanded by the Earl of Leicester, displayed the most undaunted and enterprising courage.

He had two horses killed under him, and, whilst mounting a third, was wounded by a musket shot, which broke the bone of the thigh. He had to walk about a mile and a half to the camp; and, being faint with loss of blood and parched with thirst, he called for drink, which was instantly brought him. But, as he was putting the vessel to his mouth, a poor wounded soldier, who happened to be carried past him at that instant, looked at it with wistful eyes.

The gallant and generous Sidney took the bottle from his lips without drinking, and, handing it to the soldier, said, " Thy necessity is yet greater than mine." Sixteen days after, Sidney breathed his last, in the thirty-second year of his age.

The incident reminds us of a somewhat similar act of self-denial in Bible history, on the part of David, who refused to drink the water he longed for, brought him by his mighty men at the risk of their lives, and " poured it out unto the Lord." There was self-denial in either case; but David's was prompted by self-reproach at having exposed his brave men to extreme danger, whereas Sidney's was the outcome of a noble compassion for a fellow-sufferer.

In dealing with (*c*) Biographies, the following general plan may be adopted :—

(*c*) BIOGRAPHIES

Scheme

(1) Date and place of birth; parentage, ancestry; surroundings.

(2) Education; temperament; early proclivities.

(3) Career and achievements.

(4) Closing years ; date and place of death ; burial.

(5) Personal appearance (if known) ; brief estimate of character and actions.

Application

Subject : *" Cowper "*

Outline

(1) Born 1731, at Great Berkhamsted, Herts ; father rector of the parish ; mother a Donne ; village life.

(2) Went to Westminster School ; then articled to a solicitor ; shy and nervous ; victim to religious melancholia.

(3) Life at Huntingdon and Olney with the Unwins ; " Moral Satires;" Lady Austen and " The Task ; " " Homer ;" Letters.

(4) Mental breakdown ; died 1800, at East Dereham, Norfolk ; buried in the church.

(5) Large eyes, long nose, middle stature ; sensitive, gentle, humorous ; the poet of the simple human affections.

Since the Biography belongs to the narrative class of essays, and you are telling not what the man was but what he did, it is out of place to give an analysis of his character. Hence the remarks under (5) above should be brief, and only such as throw light upon the events or actions of his life.

16. **II. Descriptive Essays.**—The aim of description is to produce in the reader's mind a clear picture of the thing described. This is done by giving details, one after another, in their proper order, till the picture is complete. We now take the different kinds of descriptive essays, as before enumerated (§ 3), giving first, a general outline or scheme and then an example of its application.

(*a*) ANIMALS, PLANTS, FRUITS, MINERALS.

Scheme

(1) Designation (class, order, species, category, etc.) ; where found.

(2) Properties or characteristics (appearance, habits, qualities).

(3) How obtained or produced (by breeding, taming, cultivation, mining, etc.).

(4) Relation to man or nature (usefulness, attractiveness, hurtfulness, etc.)

Application

Subject: *"Cotton"*

Outline

(1) A vegetable product; grown in India, Egypt, Brazil, and the Southern States of America.

(2) Raw cotton is a white, soft fibre, forming a coating for the seed of the cotton-plant.

(3) The plant is cultivated by negro and native labour; requires considerable heat and some moisture; is gathered by hand from the pods, separated from the seed by the cotton-gin, carded, and spun into yarn in cotton-mills; the yarn is woven into calico, etc.

(4) Cotton material is used for clothing, sheets, handkerchiefs, thread, etc.; it is the great Lancashire export.

(*b*) TOWNS, PORTS, SHIPS, BUILDINGS

Scheme

(1) Designation and situation.

(2) History and associations.

(3) Characteristics (climate, soil, population, size, construction, contents, etc.).

(4) Utility or notability (public buildings, trade; function or purpose).

Application

Subject: *"Agra"*

Outline

(1) City of Agra; on Jumna in United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.

(2) Founded by Akbar, 1566; first capital of the Great Mogul; captured by British, 1803; held by mutineers, 1857.

(3) Climate hot and dry; soil fertile; population about 200,000.

(4) Celebrated for Taj, Fort, etc.; large inland trade—indigo, cotton, tobacco.

With a few obvious modifications, the scheme given for (*b*) above is suitable also for (*c*) Countries, islands, mountains, seas, rivers.

(*d*) ASPECTS AND PHENOMENA OF NATURE

Scheme

(1) General descriptions.
(2) Particular aspects or effects.
(3) Influence on the feelings.

Application

Subject: "*The Starry Heavens*"

Outline

(1) Beauty and majesty of the scene; the planets, the constellations, the milky way.
(2) Jupiter and his satellites, Saturn and his rings, the Moon,—as seen through a telescope.
(3) Excites awe and wonder, and a feeling of the littleness of man and the vanity of human things; gives a sense of rest and calm.

(*e*) MANUFACTURED ARTICLES

Scheme

(1) Designation and origin.
(2) Properties or appearance.
(3) Process of manufacture.
(4) Use.

Application

Subject: "*Tobacco*"

Outline

(1) So called from *tabaco*, the pipe in which the Indians smoked it; first brought to Europe from America in 1559; a vegetable product; largely grown in the United States.
(2) A narcotic; contains nicotine, a strong poison.
(3) The leaves are gathered, dried, and slightly fermented; made into cigars, tobacco, and snuff.
(4) Used for—
    (*a*) smoking.
    (*b*) chewing.
    (*c*) snuffing.
    (*d*) medicinally for asthma, etc.

17. **III. Reflective Essays.**—The aim of the reflective essay (§ 3) is to set forth the opinions of the writer upon some subject, and to support them by arguments and illustrations. Where the subject is of a controversial nature, possible objections to the view maintained should be stated and replied to. The particular bearing of the theme should be clearly indicated and examples given, either historical or drawn from the writer's experience.

(*a*) HABITS, QUALITIES, ETC.

Scheme

(1) Definition or explanation of the subject.
(2) Working and development; illustrations.
(3) Value; advantages or disadvantages.
(4) Effects.
(5) Concluding remarks.

Application

Subject: "*Idleness*"

Outline

(1) Neglect of one's proper work; distinguish between idleness and laziness.
(2) Duty of work; idlers prey upon the community, like drones in a hive; beggars, loafers, tramps.
(3) Leads to—
    (*a*) unhappiness.
    (*b*) want of success.
    (*c*) poverty.
    (*d*) vice.
    (*e*) disease.
(4) Enervates a man bodily and mentally; the idler cannot enjoy rest or leisure.
(5) Everbody, rich or poor, should have his appointed work.

(*b*) SOCIAL, POLITICAL, AND DOMESTIC TOPICS

Scheme

(1) Definition or explanation of the subject.
(2) History (if any); working; development or decline; illustrations.
(3) Characteristics or conditions or effects.
(4) Concluding remarks.

Application

Subject: "Political Revolution."

Outline

(1) Forcible establishment, by subjects, of a new government, whether by (*a*) popular outbreak, (b) military revolt, or (*c*) private conspiracy. Examples.

(2) Causes :—

- (*a*) Oppression of populace; excessive and unjust taxation; France, 1789.
- (*b*) Arbitrary and unconstitutional action: England, 1649 and 1688; France, 1848; Italy, 1859; Spain, 1868.
- (*c*) Military reverses: France, 1870; Russia, 1905.
- (*d*) Dynastic plots; Russia, 1730 and 1762; Spain, 1874.

(3) Sometimes only temporarily successful; sometimes results in democracy, followed by autocracy: Cæsar, Cromwell, Napoleon I and III; reasons.

(4) In what circumstances justifiable.

18. **IV. Expository Essays.**—The aim of exposition (§ 3) is to set forth details of a subject, so that the reader may understand the theory or plan that underlies these details. Description has more especially to do with the outer form; exposition with the inner working.

(*a*) INSTITUTIONS, INDUSTRIES, OCCUPATIONS, ETC.

Scheme

(1) Definition and general statement, showing purpose, scope, etc.

(2) History (if any).

(3) Explanation of subject.

(4) Good or bad results.

(5) Concluding remarks.

Application

Subject: "Life-Insurance"

Outline

(1) A contract with a Company guaranteeing a certain sum at a persons' death to his heirs in return for a fixed yearly payment. Explain "premium," "policy."

(2) A modern idea; first started in England in 1706; immense developement.

(3) Example of its working; based on the uncertainty of life; vital statistics.

(4) Benefits :—

(*a*) encourages providence and thrift.
(*b*) prevents anxiety for the future.
(*c*) equalises the chances of the insured.

(5) Inexpedient for possessors of sufficient capital; show why.

The above general outline (in some cases, with slight modifications) will apply to most subjects in sub-class (*a*). For (*b*) it may be modified as follows :—

(*b*) SCIENTIFIC TOPICS

Scheme

(1) Introductory statement: history (if any).

(2) Explanation of subject; origin or constituents; action or properties.

(3) Value or use.

(4) Concluding remarks.

Application

Subject: *"Vaccination"*

Outline

(1) Ravages of small-pox in Europe and America in 17th and 18th centuries. Inoculation of small-pox virus introduced against it in 1721.

(2) Vaccination is the transfer to a person of pus taken from a calf or a human patient suffering from cow-pox; discovered in 1796 by Dr. Jenner, who found that milk-maids who had had cow-pox never took small-pox; practised generally, 1799; National Vaccine Extablishment founded, 1808.

(3) A preventive against small-pox; much opposed when first introduced, and again in recent times.

(4) Inoculation of all kinds against diseases open to question.

The subjects included under (*c*) Literary topics, are so varied, that no scheme suitable to all of them can be given. The following, which can be modified in accordance with the subject, is suggested.

(c) LITERARY TOPICS

Scheme

(1) Introductory; origin, definition, or description of subject.
(2) History (if any), or sketch of writer or writings; style, characteristics.
(3) Analysis or examination of subject-matter.
(4) Influence or effects; conclusion.

Application

Subject: "The Epigram"

Outline

(1) The terse expression of a striking or a beautiful thought; often witty or satirical; compared to a bee—why?
(2) The Greek Anthologists; Catullus and Martial; Owen, Ben Jonson, Herrick, Pope, Landor; Boileau, Lebrun; Lessing, Herder.
(3) Different kinds of epigrams; characteristics of each kind; examples. Pasquinades.
(4) A literary or political weapon; Niccolo Franco; "Despotism tempered by epigram."

16. **Study of Outline.**—When the outline is finished it should be carefully scrutinised to see whether anything irrelevant to the subject has been inserted or anything relevant to it omitted.

CHAPTER II

Structure

20. **Beginning of Essay.**—The Essay itself may now be proceeded with. The opening remarks should be brief and pointed. Set about the main theme as quickly as you can, without wasting time on preliminary statements, such as " I take up my pen etc.," " In the short time allowed etc." It often adds to the clearness of an essay to begin by saying what the main subject comprises and what are the different heads under which you propose to consider it ; or the introductory remarks may be of a general nature, leading up to the subject. If the title is vague or obscure (§§ 5, 6), begin by defining or elucidating it. Sometimes an apt quotation forms a good commencement.

21. **Simplicity.**—Write simply and in your own words, and do not try to introduce profound or original ideas. Essay-writing for the young student is meant to be a test of his power of expressing himself clearly and grammatically rather than of the extent of his reading or the depth of his reflections.

22. **Proportion.**—Each division of the subject should have its due space and attention allotted to it, no more and no less. For example, if the subject is " town and country life," do not give three quarters of your space to treating of town life, and leave only one quarter for country life. Important points, in an essay require more extended treatment than minor matters, which should be lightly touched upon. Thus in dealing with such subjects as " Anger " or " Pride," the evils resulting from these habits should form a much larger part of the essay than the comparatively rare instances in which their exercise is justifiable.

23. **Paragraphing.**—A Paragraph is an ordered succession of sentences dealing with the same topic. Divide your essay into paragraphs, which should be indented.[1] As you pass from one main topic to another, begin a new paragraph with each

[1] That is, the first line of the paragraph should be begun about half an inch further to the right than the rest.

new topic. A good outline should ensure that the topics follow one another in proper order; but you should note what you have said in the last sentence of a paragraph, and see that the next paragraph continues or developes the thought. An essay that is not divided into paragraphs gives the reader no opportunity for a pause to make sure of the meaning, but presents a trackless waste of sentences through which he has to find his way as best as he can.

24. **Sentence-connexion.**—The connexion of sentences with one another should be made clear by—(1) The use of appropriate connectives, or (2) Sentence-construction, that is, so framing each sentence as to carry on the thought from one sentence to the next.

(1) *Connectives.*—The following is a list of connectives introducing—

(*a*) an affirmation: *truly, in truth, surely, sure enough, certainly, for certain, of course, as a matter of course, doubtless, assuredly, at any rate, a all events, unquestionably.*

(*b*) an alternative statement: *or, nor, else, otherwise, instead, rather, on the contrary, on the other hand.*

(*c*) a qualification: *but, whereas, yet, still, however, nevertheless, to be sure, it is true, at the same time, after all.*

(*d*) an amplification: *also, farther, moreover, now, again, once more, then again, besides, next, too* (which must not head a sentence), *not but what, in other words, add to this.*

(*e*) a contingency: *if, though, while, when, where, whereas, because, as, since, for, seeing that.*

(*f*) a conclusion: *therefore, wherefore, hence, whence, then, thus, so, so that, consequently, accordingly, on the whole, in short, in a word, in conclusion, for this reason, in that case, in these circumstances.*

Notice how the connectives (italicised) help forward the arguments in the following passage:—

It is well to be impressed with a sense of the difficulty of judging about others; *still*, judge we must, *because* the purposes of life require it. We have, *however*, more and better materials, sometimes, than we are aware of; nor must we imagine that they are always deep-seated and recondite; *indeed* they often lie upon the surface. *For* the primary character of a man is specially discernible in trifles, *since* he acts then, as it were, almost unconsciously.

(2) *Sentence-construction.*—Take the following paragraph:—

Wellington's army was at that time inferior in numbers to the army of the enemy. I say at that time, for the Prussian forces had not yet arrived upon the field of Waterloo. Their delay was due to the length

of their march northwards from Ligny on the 17th. There on the previous day Blucher had been defeated but not routed by Napoleon, and was now on his way to unite with the English army.

Here the last words of one sentence suggest the first words of the next. Thus "at that time" in the first sentence is repeated at the beginning of the second; "not yet arrived" in that sentence suggests the word "delay" in the next; and "Ligny" in the third sentence suggests "there" in the last.

25. **Sentences joined by "and," etc.**—A common error with young writers is the monotonous use of *and, and then, and so, and he, and it,* etc. (instead of *who, which, etc.*), *as,* to join their entences, instead of employing appropriate connectives, as:—

A little dog once saved its master's life, *as* one day it was watching by his side, *and* he lay asleep in a summer-house, *and it* was old and crazy, *and so* the dog saw the walls shake. *So it understood* the danger, *as it* began barking, *and so* it woke its master. *And*[1] *then he* started up *and so he had just* time to escape, *as* the whole building fell down.

Rewrite:—

A little dog once saved its master's life. *For* one day it was watching by his side, *as* he lay asleep in a summer-house, *which* was old and crazy. *Presently* the dog saw the walls shake, *and, understanding* the danger, began barking. *This* woke its master, *who* started up *and had* just time to escape *before* the whole building fell down.

26. **Transitional sentences.**—These are useful links to paragraphs. They are a means of indicating the logical sequence of events in a narrative, and indeed of the different divisions of an essay generally. Such transitional sentences are: "The next thing he did was"; "But this was not the only thing we saw"; "So much for" (the matter); "It may be remarked here"; "But this is not all"; "There is no question that"; "I say this because"; Another matter remains to be noted"; "The sequel is well known"; 'Little more need be said;" "The result remains to be described"; "What actually happened was this"; "Such was the state of affairs, when" etc.; "To account for this fact, we must remember" etc.; "In taking leave of this part of our subject, we may note" etc.; "Events served to reveal the truth of this argument"; "The worst was now over"; "The issue was clear"; "As we have seen."

[1] A good rule is never to begin a new sentence with *and*. The conjunction *so* is better avoided as a connective where *hence, thus* etc., can be substituted for it.

27. **Introductory sentences.**—A short statement placed at the beginning of a paragraph to indicate what follows—the Topic Sentence—is often very effective, as :—

(1) He (the Sirdar) sent out the Egyptian cavalry and camel corps soon after dawn to the plain lying between Gebel Surgham and Omdurman to lure on the Khalifa's men.

The device was completely successful. Believing that they could catch the horsemen in the rocky ridge alongside of Gebel Surgham, the Dervishes came forth from their capital in swarms, pressed them hard, and inflicted some losses. Retiring in good order, the cavalry drew on the eager hordes, etc.

(2) At last I beheld through the gap, thousands of feet overhead, as if suspended in the crystal sky, a cone of illuminated snow.

You can imagine my delight. It was really that of an anchorite catching a glimpse of the seventh heaven. There at last was the long-sought-for mountain actually tumbling down upon our heads.

Notice here how effectively the short (italicised) sentences at the head of the second paragraphs summarise, as it were, what is to follow, viz., in the one case, a description of the success of the plan and, in the other, the cause of the delight. Notice also how admirably these short statements act as transitional sentences, carrying the reader along from the first paragraph to the next.

Again, when particulars are to be enumerated, it often promotes clearness to preface the enumeration by an opening paragraph consisting of a single sentence, as :—

(3) In defence of their academic treatment of this matter some considerations of a general nature may be urged.

The need of colonies felt be Germany was so natural, etc.

Such an opening paragraph is also useful for announcing a new topic and at the same time summing up what has been stated in the preceding section, as :—

(4) After what I have stated in regard to the moral discipline, the studies, and the pursuits necessary for the man of business, it remains for me only to describe his character.

28. **Short sentences.**—It is better to use short sentences than long ones. A short sentence is simple, incisive, and easily understood ; whereas a long sentence requires skill in its construction, is often a strain upon the attention, and lays itself open to errors of syntax which a short sentence escapes. For the same reason the introduction of parentheses should be avoided, which, with a young writer, often lead to obscurity as

well. At the same time, a succession of short sentences sounds jerky and monotonous, and it will be found that, as a rule, a mixture of fairly long and short sentences produces the best effect. Form a clear idea in your own mind of what you have to say, and compose a sentence in your head before committing it to paper. Clearness of thought generally ensures clearness of expression.

The following passage (from Bagehot) is a good example of the judicious intermixture of long and short sentences :—

It is very possible for a conscientious man, under a bureaucratic government, to co-operate with the rest of a council in the elaboration and execution of measures, many of which he thinks inexpedient. Nobody asks him his opinion ; he has not to argue, or defend, or persuade. But a free government boasts that it is carried on in the face of day. Its principle is discussion ; its habit is debate. The consequence is that those who conduct it have to defend measures they disapprove, or object to measures they approve, or appear to have an accurate opinion on points on which they really have no opinion.

29. **Loose and Periodic sentences.**—Sentences, as regards their structure, are of two kinds, the loose sentence and the periodic or suspended sentence. In the loose sentence the main thought is placed first, and qualifications or subordinate details come afterwards. In the periodic sentence the qualifications precede the main statement, which is reserved to the last. By this means the reader's attention is roused and held in suspense till the leading idea is stated. Thus " I shall not go out, if it rains " is a loose sentence, since the modifying clause "if it rains" is placed after the main statement "I shall not go out," which by itself is a complete sentence ; the reader is not kept in suspense. " If it rains, I shall not go out " is a periodic sentence, since the main statement is kept to the last ; the reader, till he reaches the end, feels the sentence to be incomplete The loose structure is used in conversations and in ordinary narratives, and has the advantage of simplicity, but is sometimes wanting in clearness ; the periodic structure is more literary and generally more forcible, but should not be used in excess, so as to make your style monotonous or pedantic. In the following examples the student will observe that the periodic order is usually much more effective than the loose order :—

(*a*) *Loose* : Skobeleff was at once a commander and a soldier, since he was the grandson of a peasant, whose bravery had won him promotion, and the son of a general whose prowess was renowned.

Periodic: The grandson of a peasant, whose bravery had won him promotion; the son of a general whose prowess was renowned, Skobeleff was at once a commander and a soldier.

(*b*) *Loose*: The Nihilists struck down the liberator of the serfs when on the point of recurring to better methods of rule, and thus dealt the death-blow to their own cause.

Periodic: In striking down the liberator of the serfs when on the point of recurring to better methods of rule, the Nihilists dealt the death-blow to their own cause.

(*c*) *Loose*: He was full of grand schemes, but he never succeeded in carrying them out.

Periodic: Though he was full of grand schemes, he never succeeded in carrying them out.

(*d*) *Loose*: Cromwell concentrated his whole force upon the immediate object of beating Gordon, and hastened to the relief of the harassed foot, as soon as he succeeded.

Periodic: Cromwell, concentrating his whole force upon the immediate object of beating Gordon, no sooner succeeded than he hastened to the relief of the harassed foot.

It is better not to mix the periodic structure and the loose structure in the same sentence, as :—

Deserted by his friends, he did not know where to turn, being surrounded by his enemies.

Make the sentence either (*a*) completely periodic, or (*b*) completely loose :—

(*a*) Deserted by his friends and surrounded by his enemies, he did not know where to turn.

(*b*) He did not know where to turn, being deserted by his friends and surrounded by his enemies.

30. **Unity of the sentence.** (1) *Unity of thought.*—See that your sentences possess unity, that is, contain one and only one main fact. There may be several facts in a sentence, but they must all contribute of the setting forth of the main thought, and so must be dependent on one another.

Example 1 :—

(*a*) When the town was reached, my uncle invited me to his house, where I stayed a week with the family, who entertained me most hospitably.

Here we have a sentence of four clauses, each with a different subject (*town, uncle, I. who*), so that the reader's attention is diverted from the main subject, the speaker.

Rewrite :—

(*b*) On reaching the town, I was invited by my uncle to his house, where I stayed a week with the family and was entertained most hospitably.

Example 2 :—

(*a*) The purchase of the Suez Canal shares was sanctioned by Parliament without a division, a speculation which from a commercial point of view has been most profitable.

Here there are two ideas: (1) the sanction of the purchase; (2) its advantage. These two ideas are not dependent on each other; the sanction of the purchase did not make it profitable.

Rewrite :—

(*b*) The purchase of the Suez Canal shares was sanctioned by Parliament without a division. From a commercial point of view the speculation has been most profitable.

Example 3 :—

(*a*) Able and tactful in his conduct of public affairs, he occupied his scanty leisure with art, literature, and historical research.

Here again there are two independent ideas; his ability in the conduct of public affairs has nothing to do with how he occupied his leisure. Rewrite :—

(*b*) He was able and tactful in his conduct of public affairs. His scanty leisure he occupied with art, literature, and historical research.

Example 4 :—

(*a*) Dr. Robinson died this morning. He was born March 10, 18—. He was seventy years old, and left a large fortune to his wife and children.

Here, on the other hand, we have a series of short sentences that do not contain separate facts. These are only two, the death of Dr. Robinson and his bequest. Rearrange :—

(*b*) Dr. Robinson died this morning at the age of seventy, having been born March 10, 18—. He left a large fortune to his wife and children.

Similarly, do not crowd a sentence with heterogeneous details or incongruous statements, thus confusing the sense by huddling together matters that ought to be kept apart. Note the jumble of ideas in the following sentence :—

(*a*) Whatever you earn, save something, without minding what people say about love of money or being miserly, as every one ought to be above becoming dependent upon others, and money in the bank makes a man hold his head up and respect himself, and he deserves such respect, which he has won by self-denial.

Rewrite :—

(*b*) Whatever you earn, save something. Never mind what people say about love of money and being miserly. Every one ought to be above becoming dependent upon others. Money in the bank makes a man hold his head up and respect himself. He deserves such respect too ; for he has won it by self-denial.

(2) *Unity of Structure.*—Sentences should also have unity or symmetry of structure ; they should be framed on the same plan. Examine the following :—

(*a*) He succeeded at first through the boldness of his action ; but he failed in the end because he was wanting in perseverance. (Here unity of structure is violated by the last clause, instead of which write " through his want of perseverance " to coincide with " through the boldness " etc.)

(*b*) The Premier declared that such conduct was a violation of the Constitution and dangerous to the State. (Substitute a " danger "—to coincide with " a violation "—for " dangerous.")

(*c*) The speaker, wishing to secure a friendly reception, and who felt uncertain of his audience, confined himself to generalities. (Write either " who wished " for " wishing," or " feeling " for " who felt,")

(*d*) Stairs that creak, smoky chimneys, leaky roofs, windows that stick, are the signs of the jerry-builder. For " smoky chimneys" write " chimneys that smoke," and for " leaky roofs " write " roofs that leak,")

(*e*) Has he not disappointed his friends ? Has he not beggared his family ? And, worse than all, he has ruined his reputation. (Write " has he not ruined ? " instead of " he has ruined.")

(*f*) The king refused to consider his decision, and immediate action was ordered by him to be taken. (Write " and ordered immediate action to be taken,")

(*g*) Callousness is to have no feeling for others. (Write " is the want of feeling.")

(*h*) He is firm in action, but at the same time gentle-mannered. (Write " gentle in manner")

(*i*) The place is used as a warehouse, with goods on the first floor, and has an office below. (Write " and with an office.")

31. **Incongruous constructions.**—The student must also beware of incongruous constructions arising from the attempt to make one word do the work of two. Thus in "I never have and never will believe it," *believe* is made to do double duty, both as infinitive after *will* and as participle after *have*. Rewrite " I never have believed it and never will believe it " or, more briefly, " I never have believed it and never will."

Examples :—

(*a*) *Incorrect* : All his money is spent and all his hopes ruined.

Correct: All his money is spent and all his hopes *are* ruined.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: His writing is as good and perhaps even better than mine.

Correct: His writing is as good *as* and perhaps even better than mine.
His writing is as good *as* mine and perhaps even better.

(*c*) *Incorrect*: He is one of the richest, if not the richest *man* in London.

Correct: He is one of the richest *men*, if not the richest man in London.

(*d*) *Incorrect*: This rule may and ought to be disregarded.

Correct: This rule may *be* and ought to be disregarded.

(*e*) *Incorrect*: He brought much wood and coconuts.

Correct: He brought much wood and *many* coconuts.

(*f*) *Incorrect*: They called us young rebels and to help ourselves if we could.

Correct: They called us young rebels and *told us* to help ourselves if we could.

(*g*) *Incorrect*: He made a blunder and, worse than that, a crime.

Correct: He made a blunder and, worse than that, *committed* a crime.

(*h*) *Incorrect*: The chateau was small, a fact which added rather than detracted from its beauty.

Correct: The chateau was small, a fact which added *to* rather than detracted from its beauty.

32. **Confused constructions.**—Do not confuse different constructions or phrases, as :—

(*a*) Keep your body upright, like I do. (" like I do " is a confusion of " as I do " and " like me.")

(*b*) He gave his men orders that, as soon as he arrived, to arrest him, (The sentence confounds " to arrest " and " that they should arrest.")

(*c*) Did any one ever trust me and found me unreliable ? (" Did any one find " is confused with " has any one found.")

(*d*) Though having been ill for years, he is now quite well. (" After having been ill " is confused with " Though he has been ill.

(*e*) I have much pleasure to accept your offer (" It gives me much pleasure to accept " is confused with " I have much pleasure in accepting ")

(*f*) He put down this misfortune at my door. (" put down to me " is confused with " laid at my door.")

(*g*) He is a man whom I supposed was incapable of such meanness (" who I supposed was incapable " is confused with " whom I supposed incapable.")

(*h*) The robbers laid in wait for the traveller. (" laid wait " is confused with " lay in wait,")

(*i*) I cannot help but think that you are wrong. (" I cannot help thinking " is confused with " I cannot but think.")

33. **Careless sentences.**—Sometimes from confusion of thought, sometimes from mere want of thought, the young writer will express himself carelessly. This is a common fault in essay-writing, to be especially guarded against. Take the following sentence :—

The public are responding but slowly to the appeal of the Post Office *to facilitate the delay* of correspondence in London by using the new numbered addresses.

Here instead of the italicised words, the writer obviously meant either " to facilitate the delivery " or " to prevent the delay." Examples :—

(*a*) *Incorrect* : He is grateful to me for a heavy loss that I saved from him.
Correct : He is grateful to me for saving him from a heavy loss.

(*b*) *Incorrect* : Dorothy's absence was required to look after her sick brother.
Correct : Dorothy was absent because she was required to look after her sick brother.

(*c*) *Incorrect* : One good runner I well remember how often he came in first.
Correct : I well remember how often one good runner came in first.

(*d*) *Incorrect* : I think it may benefit your health by taking a glass of water before meals.
Correct : I think it may benefit your health to take, etc.
I think you may benefit your health by taking, etc.

(*e*) *Incorrect* : The Committee requests subscriptions to be paid to the treasurer.
Correct : The committee requests that subscriptions be paid to the treasurer.

(*f*) *Incorrect* : The evacuation of the British troops from Suvla.
Coorect : The evacuation of Suvla by the British troops.

(*g*) *Incorrect* : Monmouth's disloyalty was strongly suspected by the king.
Correct : Monmouth's loyalty was strongly suspected etc.
Monmouth was strongly suspected of disloyalty etc.

Sometimes the carelessness consists in the omission of the principal verb or clause or other essential words, as :—

(*a*) It was the opinion of all present that the Scots, who had marched into the heart of England and had not been joined except by a very insignificant number. (The principal clause " had done all that could be expected of them " is omitted.)

(*b*) My house is not larger than many others have built for themselves. (" those that " is omitted before " many.")

(*c*) He declared when a letter was lost the bearer should be fined (" that " is omitted before " when ")

(*d*) The greater the crowd, the larger space is required. (" the larger *the* space *that* is required.")

(*e*) The wheat on this land is finer than last year. (" it was " is omitted after " than.")

34. **The Historic Present.**—In narrating anything, do not use the historic present, but keep to the past tense throughout. Otherwise you will be liable to mix your tenses in the same narrative, as is done in the following example (the tenses confused are italicised): —

Joan of Arc *was born* in 1412. As a girl she *was distinguished* for her piety and simplicity. At the age of fifteen she *hears* voices urging her to help the Dauphin against the English, and making her way into his presence, she at length *persuades* him to believe in her heavenly mission. Soon after, fighting with wonderful bravery, she *compelled* the English to raise the siege of Orleans.

Apart, however, from narratives of this kind, the introduction of the pronouns " I " and "you " should be avoided. An Essay is not a Speech or a Lecture, and should in general be as impersonal as possible. Thus " I may point out here " should rather be " One may point out," or " It may be pointed out " ; " I have no time to add more " should be" Time will not permit further details " ; " I cannot agree with those who say " etc., should be " It is impossible to agree " ; " You should be careful not to indulge in this habit " should be " People should be careful."

35. **Position of the parts of a sentence.**—The position of words, phrases, and clauses in an English sentence is very important, because the sense often depends upon the position. Thus in the sentence—

1. He gave the chair to the poor man that had a broken leg,
2. He gave the chair that had a broken leg to the poor man,

it is clear that the question whether the man or the chair had a

broken leg depends entirely upon the position of the relative clause, "that had a broken leg" Sometimes a slight change in the wording of a sentence is necessary in order to make the sense clear. Thus the sentence.

(*a*) The master presented each of the boys with a book that had passed the examination,

declares that the book had passed the examination. Again, if we write

(*b*) The master presented each of the boys that had passed the examination with a book,

the sentence might suggest that the book had been used for passing the examination, Alter the sentence thus :—

(*c*) To each of the boys that had passed the examination the master presented a book.

36. **Rule of Proximity.**—The general rule is that the parts of a sentence that are most closely related in thought should be placed nearest to each other. Thus :—

(1) A relative pronoun should be placed next to its antecedent :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: I have read this author's works, who is a good writer.

Correct: I have read the works of this author, who is a good writer.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: Dryden claimed a delicate raillery as a mark of his satire, which he thought need not be offensive.

Coorect: Dryden claimed as a mark of his satire a delicate raillery, which he thought need not be offensive.

(2) Qualifying phrases or clauses should be placed as near as possible to what they qualify :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: The men pursued the herd, brandishing long whips.

Correct: The men, brandishing long whips, pursued the herd.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: He did not lose his way and so arrive late, as I supposed.

Correct: He did not lose his way, as I supposed, and so arrive late.

(3) An adverbial phrase should come close to the word that it modifies :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: I told him that he had made a blunder as plainly as possible.

Correct: I told him as plainly as possible that he had made a blunder.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: You affirm that I am mistaken a great deal too soon.

Correct: You affirm a great deal too soon that I am mistaken.

(4) A prepositional phrase should be placed immediately after the word to which it is an adjunct :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: A novel has just been published by a new author.

Correct: A novel by a new author has just been published.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: The photographer was so weak from fever that he had to be carried to the spot where the lion lay on his camp bed.

Correct: The photographer was so weak from fever that he had to be carried on his camp bed to the spot where the lion lay.

(5) An adjective and its qualifying phrase should come together :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: I have never seen a cleverer man at engineering.

Correct: I have never seen a man cleverer at engineering.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: Hostile laws to the people were passed.

Correct: Laws hostile to the people were passed.

(6) Nouns and pronouns connected in sense should be placed near together :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: Solomon was the son of David, the builder of the Temple.

Correct: Solomon, the builder of the Temple, was the son of David.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: I forgive you, as a father; I condemn you, as a judge.

Correct: As a father, I forgive you; as a judge, I condemn you.

37. **Position of Correlatives.**[1] —Correlative words are frequently misplaced in a sentence. Thus in "He has not only hurt his leg but his head," *not only* is misplaced, since it qualifies "his leg," not "hurt"; and the sentence should be "He has hurt not only his leg but his head," Examples :—

1 Words that have a reciprocal relation to each other in a sentence.

(*a*) *Incorrect*: He *neither offended* him nor his brother.
Correct: He *offended neither* him nor his brother.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: He *both offended* him and his brother.
Correct: He *offended both* him and his brother.

(*c*) *Incorrect*: Exercise is good *both for* body *and mind*.
Exercise is good *for both* body *and for* mind.
Correct: Exercise is good for *both* body *and* mind.
Exercise is good *both for* body *and for* mind.

(*d*) *Incorrect*: This house is *not advertised* for sale but for hire.
Correct: This house is *advertised not* for sale but for hire.

(*e*) *Incorrect*: He is *as much noted* for his firmness as for his gentleness.
Correct: He is *noted as much* for his firmness as for his gentleness.

38. **Position of Adverbs.**—I. Adverbs and adverbial phrases such as *only* (see § 37), *even, at least, at all events, not, hardly, scarcely, nearly, almost,* are often misplaced, as :—

(*a*) *Incorrect*: A wealthy man can never *even be sure* of friendship.
Correct: A wealthy man can never *be sure even* of friendship.

(*b*) *Incorrect*: Your party *at least might* have waited for me.
Correct: Your party *might at least* have waited for me.

(*c*) *Incorrect*: : He found his headache *at all events*[1] no worse for the journey.
Correct: He found his headache no worse *for the journey at all events*.
He found *at all events his headache* no worse for the journey.

(*d*) *Incorrect*: Gay colours were *not thought* to be in good taste.
Correct: Gay colours were *thought not* to be in good taste.

(*e*) *Incorrect*: I *hardly think* that you intended this rudeness.
Correct: I think that you *hardly intended* this rudeness.

(*f*) *Incorrect*: *Everything nearly* makes him ill that he eats.
Correct: *Nearly everything* that he eats makes him ill.

(*g*) *Incorrect*: You can *almost get* any book at that shop.
Correct: You can get *almost any* book at that shop.

II. There are four main rules for the position of adverbs :—

(1) The adverb, unless it is one of time, should come immediately after an Intransitive verb :—

[1] The misplacing of *at all events* between two expressions either of which it may modify, makes it capable of two interpretations.

Peter went out and *wept bitterly* (not " bitterly wept ").
He seldon *answers correctly* (not " correctly answers ").

(2) In the case of a verb with one Auxiliary, the Adverb should generally come between the Auxiliary and the Participle :

He *was suddenly taken* ill (not " suddenly was taken ").

(3) In the case of an Active verb with two Auxiliaries, the Adverbs should come between them[1] :—

I *would gladly have* accepted your offer (not " gladly would have ").

(4) In the case of a Passive verb with two Auxiliaries, the Adverb should come after them both as in (*a*), unless it modifies the whole sentence, as in (*b*).

(*a*) I *have been sadly* disappointed in him (not " have sadly been ").
(*b*) *I have usually been* welcomed as a friend (not " have been usually").

39. **Emphatic Positions.**—The important parts of a sentence should be placed in prominent or emphatic positions. The emphatic positions are the beginning and the end of a sentence ; and still greater emphasis is gained, when, in order to place a word or words in those positions, the normal order of words is altered. Examine the following examples :—

(*a*) After he had attended school for six months, he gained the first prize, to the surprise of everybody. (Here his gaining the prize is the important part, and the sentence should run : " To the surprise of every body, after he had attended school for six months, he gained the first prize.")

(*b*) The greatest respect is due to the authority of Parliament ; for confusion must follow, if once that authority were to fail. [Here there are two important parts : (1) the authority of Parliament ; (2) the fact that confusion must follow its failure. Re-arrange as follows, noting that the emphasis is increased by the fact that (1) is placed out of its normal order : " To the authority of Parliament the greatest respect is due ; for, if once that authority were to fail, confusion must follow."]

(*c*) Milton is the most classical of all English poets. (Here by changing the normal order and transferring " of all English poets " to the beginning, we make those words emphatic, and at the same time bring the important part " is the most classical " to the end of the sentence : " Of all English poets Milton is the most classical.")

40. **Ambiguity** should in all cases be avoided. It is due mainly to—

[1] Except for emphasis, as :—" He was taken ill suddenly " ; " I would have accepted your offer gladly, or " Gladly would I have accepted your offer."

(1) The omission of necessary words :—

(*a*) He was angry with his neighbours for blaming his children, and especially Charles (Repeat *with* before Charles, otherwise *Charles* is object to *blaming*).

(*b*) Napoleon criticised his officers more than Wellington (This might mean " more than he criticised Wellington." Write " more than Wellington *did* ").

(*c*) The poor man was attacked by robbers whom he resisted as best he could and left for dead on the roadside (This should mean that the robbers were left for dead. Repeat *was* before *left*).

(2) The use of words with a double meaning :—

(*a*) The king pardoned him *for* his frankness under examination (This might mean either that the king pardoned his frankness, or that the king pardoned him on account of his frankness).

(*b*) Australia as yet possesses no *capital* (Write possesses no capital city " or " is destitute of capital " according to the meaning required).

(*c*) Did you *observe* the regulations of the institution ? (Does *observe* mean " notice " or " keep ? " Alter accordingly).

(*d*) You *want* a new suit of clothes (Here *want* might mean " wish for." Write " You *need* ").

(*e*) After his explanation I understood how *little* alterations were necessary (According as *little* is an adjective or an adverb, the sentence means either that some small alterations were necessary, or that no alterations were necessary).

(3) Faulty phrasing or construction :—

(*a*) The Professor's next experiment was not *the least interesting* (This might mean " not interesting in the least " or " one of the most interesting").

(*b*) India is in bad plight, if pestilence and famine remain unchecked, and her prosperity is lost (The last clause might mean " and if her prosperity is lost." Rearrange : " If pestilence and famine remain unchecked India is in bad plight and her prosperity is lost ").

(*c*) I meant *nothing less than* to cause you annoyance (This might mean either " I mean to go so far as to cause you annoyance, or " I had no intention whatever of causing you annoyance ").

(*d*) He said that he expected no reward and meant his name to be kept secret (Rewrite either " He said that he expected no reward, and that he meant " etc., or " He said that he expected no reward ; he meant " etc.).

(4) Doubtful Reference of Personal Pronouns :—

(*a*) The King having refused to pardon Monmouth, *he* was executed the next day (Show that *he* refers to Monmouth by rewriting : " Monmouth, the king having refused to pardon him, was executed the next day ").

(*b*) The father told his son that if *he* did not return soon, *he* thought *he* had better send *him* a letter to say how *he* was getting on. (Rewrite :— The father said to his son : " If you do not return soon, I think you had better send me a letter to say how you are getting on.")

(*c*) When I advocated the abolition of imprisonment for debt, he declared he was in favour of *it*. (Here it might stand either for imprisonment or for its abolition. According to the meaning intended, substitute for *it* either " such imprisonment " or " such abolition."

41. **Qualifying phrases.**—Want of care in the use of qualifying phrases often produces confused and slipshod writing, as :—

(*a*) On appearing on the platform, the audience greeted him with applause (*appearing* is made to refer to *audience* ; write : " On his appearing.")

(*b*) One of the most modest of men, his aim ever was to keep in the background. (Here the qualifying phrase has no noun to refer to. Write " he ever aimed at keeping " etc.)

(*c*) When looking through a mist, objects appear unnaturally large. (*Looking* is made to refer to *objects*. Write : " when we are looking " or better, " when seen through a mist.")

(*d*) The machine is so constructed that it stops by pressing a button. (Here the machine is made to press the button. Write : " That you can stop it.")

(*e*) To be free, a kick on the crazy door of the hut was enough. (It was not the kick that wanted to be free. Write : " To free himself.")

(*f*) Having lost his purse, the innkeeper agreed to accept my friend's promise of future payment. (Here the innkeeper is made to lose his purse. Write : " My friend having lost his purse, the innkeeper agreed to accept his promise " etc.).

(*g*) Starting early in the morning, our destination was reached the same day. (*Starting* is made to relate to *destination*. Write : " we reached our destination.")

42. **End of Essay.**—It is quite as important to end an essay well as to begin it well. An abrupt or a feeble conclusion disappoints the expectation of the reader, and leaves a bad impression upon the Examiner's mind. The close should be natural and obvious, not forced. The following are effective methods of ending an essay :—

(*a*) A brief summary of previous arguments or statements, with reflections and conclusions.

(*b*) Simple reflections upon, and conclusions drawn from, the subject-matter of the essay.

(*c*) A single striking sentence.

(*d*) An authoritative quotation bearing upon the subject.

(*e*) A climax.

CHAPTER III

DICTION

43. Precision in the use of words.—The essay-writer should try to enlarge his vocabulary, so as to have a good stock of words at his command to choose from. In order to do this, read good English authors and make sure that you know accurately the meanings of all the words that you meet with in your reading. Note any word that is new to you, and make it familiar by use. In writing, take pains to set down the word that exactly expresses your meaning, and do not be satisfied till you have found that word. Keep a good dictionary by you to consult whenever you are in doubt as to the true significance of a word. A book of synonyms is another great help to composition: you will thus be able to employ them with accuracy and precision, and not use one word to express a dozen different meanings or shades of meaning. A common instance of this is the indiscriminate use of the word *nice*—a *nice* day, a *nice* walk, a *nice* bonnet, a *nice* house, a *nice* man, a *nice* train, for a *fine* day, a *pleasant* walk, a *pretty* bonnet, a *good* house, an *agreeable* man, a *convenient* train—a use which, if tolerable in speech, is inadmissible in an essay. *Nice* has two main meanings: (1) delicate, fastidious, precise; as "a *nice* calculation": (2) delicious, as "a *nice* cake"; and to these the word should be confined. *Sweet, fine, funny, good, beautiful* are often used in the same indiscriminate fashion. Other examples of the slovenly use of words are *preventative* for *preventive*, *casuality* for *casualty*, *speciality* for *specialty*. Similarly, *to ascertain* should not be used loosely for "to find out"; it means "to make certain," as: "Pilate, having *ascertained* that Jesus was dead, granted his body to Joseph." Be careful therefore, in your selection of words, to see that you have the right word for the right idea. Examine the following passage:—

(*a*) A State is a collection of free human beings, joined by mutual ties, some of which may be said to have grown, some to have been manufactured. The chief ties that have grown are the being of the same race language, religion, and inhabiting the same land. The most important manufactured ties are of a legal, social, and official nature; these are mutual bonds which the people have gradually established for themselves.

Here "collection" is not an appropriate word to use of *persons*. "Joined" is an inadequate word to express the idea intended, and "mutual" is incorrect; affection may be mutual, (*i. e.*, felt by two persons for each other) but not a tie. A tie that "grows" suggests a mixed metaphor, and a tie that is manufactured suggests a necktie. "The being" etc. is a very awkward mode of expression. The meaning of the statement "are of a nature" is not clear; "mutual" is again incorrect; and "established" is an inappropriate word when applied to a bond.

The following is the passage as it should be written :—

(*b*) A State is an aggregation of free human beings, bound together by common ties, some of which may be called natural ties, some artificial. The chief natural ties are community of race, of language, of religion, and of territory. The most important artificial ties are law, custom, and executive government; these are common bonds which the people have gradually developed for themselves.

44. **Inexact phraseology.**—The young essay-writer is apt to be careless in wording his sentences, so that, while his meaning may be plain enough, his way of expressing it is illogical or incongruous. Thus he will write "A sea voyage is a good way of spending a holiday." Now a *voyage* cannot be a *way*, and he ought to have written: "To take a sea voyage is" etc. Examine the following examples :—

(*a*) This view is the finest seenery in the world. (A *view* is not *scenery*; write: "contains the finest scenery" etc.).

(*b*) He gave us a kind reeeption, which was shown us by all present. (A *reception* cannot be *shown*; write "He received us with kindness," etc.).

(*c*) Presently I heard a strange sound. It was a man trying to get in at the window. (A *sound* cannot be a *man*; write "It was made by a man" etc.).

(*d*) Another method of killing rats is that of poison. (We cannot say "a method of poison"; for "that of poison" write either "that of using poison" or simply "the use of poison.")

(*e*) His Arctic expedition is a eatalogue of misfortunes. (An *expedition* is not a *catalogue*; write "The history of his Arctic expedition" etc.).

(*f*) A sad spectacle of want occurred this morning. (A *spectacle* cannot *occur*; write either "instance" for "spectacle", or "was seen" for "occurred.")

(*g*) Yesterday we had the good fortune of a most magnificent sunset (Insert "seeing" after "of.")

(*h*) To be an author means one who possesses literary ability. (Insert "to be" before "one.")

(*i*) The rule accords those who have passed this test to be excused from further examination. (Insert "the right" after "test," or substitute "permits" for "accords.")

45. **Use of "I" and "You."**—If your narrative is a story or incident drawn from your own experience, do not try to avoid employing the personal pronoun "I." There is nothing boastful or offensive in saying "I"; attempts to shun its use will only make your style feeble and clumsy. Of the following two versons of an incident, (*a*), and (*b*), observe how much more natural and vivid (*b*), in which "I" is retained, is than (*a*), in which attempts are made to exclude it:—

(*a*) One day I determined to go for a row on the river. So a boat *was hired* and the men *were told* to row to the Botanical Gardens. On the way we all on a sudden ran into another boat, and the next thing *known* was *my falling* into the water. As the tide *swept me* along, fortunately a buoy *was seen* in front of me. *By catching hold* of this my life *was saved*.

(*b*) One day I determined to go for a row on the river. So *I hired* a boat and *told* the men to row to the Botanical Gardens. On the way we all on a sudden ran into another boat, and the next thing *I knew* was that *I had fallen* into the water. As *I was swept* along by the tide, fortunately *I saw* a buoy in front of me. *I caught hold* of this and *saved* my life.

46. **Use of "We."**—Leave "we" to Newspaper Editors. Do not say "we have little doubt," but "there is little doubt"; and never write "as a child we were taken to see the king," or begin a story with "When we were a little boy."

Similarly, do not thrust forward your opinion by using such expressions as "I think," "It seems to me," "I believe," "I feel sure," "I am certain," "I am convinced," "To the best of my knowledge," "As far as I am aware," and so on.

47. **Tautology.**—Tautology, or the needless repetition in the same sentence of the same thought in different words, must be guarded against, since the practice makes an essay very tedious reading. Write compactly, use only words enough to express your meaning adequately, and say just what you have to say and no more. In forming a sentence, the young writer should ask himself whether there are any words that can be left out without interfering with the sense. Thus in the sentence "The scenery of the Lake District is made more beautiful by

the beauty of the surrounding mountains," tautology may be got rid of either by striking out "the beauty of" or by altering "made more beautiful" into "enhanced." Examples :—

(*a*) When he fell, there was a universal cry of horror from everybody. (Omit either " universal " or " from everybody, " which repeat each other).

(*b* The accompanying spice of danger only added more to the interest of the undertaking. (Omit " accompanying " and " more.")

(*c*) Happily no one , by a lucky chance, happened to be in that part of the mine . (Omit " by a lucky chance," which repeats " happily," and change " happened to be " into " was.")

(*d*) Beauty is transient and fleeting; virtue is lasting and permanent. (Omit " and fleeting " and " and permanent.")

(*e*) This can be done at a small extra cost of a few pence more. (Omit either " of a few pence more " or " small extra.")

(*f*) The weather was too hot for the boys to pay the proper attention they ought to their studies. (Write either " to pay proper attention to, " or " to pay the attention they ought.")

(*g*) All were drowned except five survivors. (Omit " survivors.")

(*h* I po sess several autograph letters written by Tennyson (Either write" autograph letters of Tennyson " or omit " autograph,")

(*i*) Though this book abounds in many inaccuracies, nevertheless it is at the same time a useful work of reference to consult. (Omit " many," " at the same time," and " consult.")

(*j*) Napoleon's reason for retreat was on account of the want of food and shelter for his army, whose privations caused his reitrement from the burning city. (Omit " on account of " and " whose.....retirement " and insert "from the burning city " after " retreat.")

48. **Pleomasms** or redundancies of expression should be avoided. Do not write " He *continued to remain* silent " for " He remained silent," " This *seems to look* ungracious " for " This seems (*or* looks) ungracious," or " He *offered to give* me a ride," for " He offered me a ride." In "The whole sum *total*" " He restored him to his mother *again*," They returned *back*," " Their mutual affection *for each other*" (see § 37), " I did not mean to do it *intentionally*," the italicised words should be omitted.

49. **Repetition.**—Avoid the needless repetition, in a sentence, of the same word or expression. It has a monotonous affect and jars on the ear of the reader, as :—

(*a*) This *statement* has been *made* before. It is a *statement* that people often *make* when they desire to *make* a general *statement*, or when they know that no *statement* they *make* can *make* any difference.

(*b*) The great length *of* the heads *of* many *of* the inhabitants *of* these islands is *of* course *of* importance in the determination *of* their origin.

Rewrite :—

(*a*) This statement has been made before. It is one that people often make when they desire to *generalise*, or when they know that *nothing that they say* can make any difference.

(*b*) The great length of head *in many inhabitants* of these islands is *obviously important* in *determining* their origin.

But the repetition of the same word for the same thing need not be avoided, as :—

We may question whether the telegraph and the gramophone have added greatly to the *sum* of *human* happiness, but we cannot dispute that chloroform and aseptic surgery have lessened the *sum* of *human* misery.

Here to substitute *total amount* and *man's* for *sum* and *human* in the latter half of the sentence, would injure its symmetry and force. It is a mistake to vary a word for the sake of varying it, as in—

In most of the transactions of life there is some portion which no one cares to *accomplish*, and which everybody wishes to be *achieved*. (Rewrite: "some portion which no one cares to *do*, and which everybody wishes to be *done*.")

50. **Verbosity** is the use of many words where a few are sufficient for the purpose. Thus the verbose writer will say, "As soon as I heard of the unfortunate accident, I put on my hat, provided myself with an umbrella on account of the rain, went out, and hurried as fast as I could to fetch the doctor," instead of the concise and sufficient, "On hearing of the accident I ran off in the rain for the doctor." Further examples are :—

(*a*) The storm was the occasion of much loss of life and entailed considerable injury to property throughout the whole district. (Rewrite : "The storm caused much loss of life and property thoughout the district.")

(*b*) The disturbances which for a long time have kept the atmospheric situation in such an unsettled state appear to be about to pass away. (Rewrite : "There seems likely at last to be an improvement in the weather.")

(*c*) In the event of his being elected, he has formed the design of holding in the near future a public exhibition of a number of his pictures that he has painted on various subjects. (Rewrite : "If he is elected, he intends soon to hold an exhibition of his pictures.")

(*d*) I find that in many cases there is room for hesitation as to whether I should pass a candidate, in the face of the fact of the inferiority of his

handwriting. (Rewrite: "Bad hand-writing often makes me hesitate to pass a candidate.")

51. **Periphrasis** is a roundabout way of saying any thing, or the roundabout statement itself. Avoid using commonplace periphrases, such as—

The tender passion	for love	The gentle reader	for reader
The fair sex, The softer sex, The weaker vessel	,, women	The main chance	,, gain
		The nuptial tie	,, marriage
The lords of creation	,, men	The green-eyed monster	,, jealousy
One's better half	,, wife	The great metropolis	,, London
The flowing bowl	,, wine	Sons of Mars	,, soldiers
The staff of life	,, bread	Ploughs its way	,, sails

A periphrasis is correctly used when it implies something; thus in the sentence, "The conquerer of Jena was not likely to assent to such lenient terms of peace." *The conqueror of Jena* is equivalent to "Napoleon *since he had won the victory of Jena*," or "Napoleon *in his capacity of conqueror of Jena.*"

52. **Idiom.**—Be careful to preserve in your English composition the idiom or literary usage of the language. Mistakes in idiom generally occur in the use of phrases, often metaphorical, and of prepositions. The use of wrong prepositions after words is a very common error which must be specially guarded against. In the following examples the wrong word or expression is italicised, and is followed by the correction in brackets :—

1. This functionary is a *straw man* (man of straw), appointed to give an aspect of legality to the proceedings.
2. He is *more* (better) educated than I am.
3. He always had a hatred *against* (of *or* for) inefficiency.
4. *By* (in) acting as he did, he was inconsistent *to* (with) his principles.
5. Death stared him in *his* (the) face.
6. I have *gone* (run) through my whole fortune.
7. He displayed gentleness combined *to* (with) firmness.
8. I once had the privilege *to hear* (of hearing) Gladstone speak.
9. The Council's treatment *toward* (of) the children is indefensible.
10. He refused to *avail of* (avail himself of) my assistance.
11. I should have been drowned *without* (but for) his help.
12. The proposal was compared *with* (to) thrusting a ramrod into clockwork.
13. Your means are great, compared *to* (with) mine.
14. He did not *pursue* (carry) his indignation so far as to refuse all aid.
15. He *adhered himself* (adhered) to the party in power.
16. It was wrong *in* (of) you to break your promise.
17. My strength is inadequate *for* (to) the effort.

18. He has taken a leap *into* (in) the dark.
19. There is little *to do* (to be done) in such a hopeless case as this.
20. He passed *as* (for) a rich man.
21. I *showed* (gave) him the cold shoulder.
22. The debate was now *coming* (drawing) to a close.
23. He has *resigned from* (resigned) his appointment.
24. During the journey we had the carriage all *by* (to) ourselves.
25. He is *head over ears* (over head and ears) in debt.
26. There is a great difference *in* (between) the careers of Napoleon and Wellington.
27. He is *hardly*[1] (hard) hit by the Bank's failure.
28. The representation of Ireland is out of proportion *with* (to) its population.
29. *Since* (for) several days he has been ill *from* (of) fever.
30. I will *take* (go) shares with you in the profits.
31. We have so *long* (far) confined ourselves to England; we now turn to Europe.
32. The rivers are connected *to* (with) each other by a canal.
33. I am powerless *of altering* (to alter) the sentence.
34. I have much pleasure *to accept* (in accepting) your kind offer.
35. He told the boy that he had been robbed, and *for him to fetch* (bade him fetch) a policemen.
36. I am ready to confide all my plans *in* (to) you.
37. No foreign Government has protested *at* (against) the Bill.
38. *By* (from) his bearing, I should say he has been in the army.
39. Alienation *with* (from) our Colonies must be avoided.
40. He revenged himself *against* (upon) his detractors.
41. They set *at* (to) work at once to restore circulation in the feet.
42. This will *subserve to* (subserve) my purpose.
43. He had not a chance *to succeed* (of succeeding) in his attempt.
44. I prevented *him jumping* (him from jumping *or* his jumping) overboard.
45. I will punish you if you *play false to me* (play me false).
46. I use gas *by* (in) preference to the electric light.
47. The existence of evil *belongs among* (belongs to *or* is among) the mysteries of life.
48. There is another side *of* (to) the question.
49. He is full of hostility *against* (to) my proposal.
50. You must *cross over*—or *cross through—France* (cross France) to get to Spain.
51. The book at once *reached through* (passed through *or* reached) several editions.
52. In our lessons we will begin *from* (with) the alphabet.
53. You complain that your work is *illy* (ill) paid.
54. He promised England's services *for* (to) science and art.
55. He is somewhat the worse *of* (for) liquor.
56. They *showered him with congratulations* (showered congratulations upon him).

1. *Hardly* would mean "scarcely." Similarly, in "Tickets can be obtained free" *free* means "gratuitously"; *freely* would mean "liberally.' Go home *direct*"="go *straight* home;" "go home *directly*="go home *at once*." Never write or say *firstly*, but "*first*, secondly, thirdly," *etc.*; you might as well say *nextly*.

57. I congratulate you *for* (upon) your success.
58. The sun was shining too *hotly* (hot) for my comfort.
59. I *scraped up* (scraped) acquaintance with him.
60. The detective soon *penetrated through* (penetrated) his disguise.
61. The rebellion was *crushed out* (crushed).
62. I should like to *try* (make) an experiment.
63. In the end he lost his train, *which* (as) I did.
64. I sometimes attend sales *at* (by) auction.
65. His desire *of* (for) brevity makes him obscure.
66. He is suffering from wounds *obtained* (received) at Ypres.
67. Every avenue *for* (to) promotion is closed.
68. These are *staple* (standard) works on Russian history.
69. The Bellona sailed abreast *with* (of) the other ships.
70. He was angry at the *doctor* (doctor's) not coming.
71. I had not heard of *him* (his) being ill.

53. **Fine Writing,** a fondness for high-flown expressions is akin to verbosity.

In writing about plain matters use a plain, unaffected style. Remember that—(1) simplicity promotes clearness; (2) errors in idiom and meaning are more apt to occur in ornate than in simple diction. It is a mistake to imagine that in order to produce an impression you must write in a formal or pompous manner. Examples :—

PLAIN STATEMENT.	FINE WRITING.
Cause trouble	Involve some inconvenience.
Mother	Maternal relative.
Qualities	Particular characteristic properties.
Fire	The devouring element.
Blood	The vital fluid.
Tail	Candal appendage.
Nose	The olfactory organ.
My feelings were hurt	My sensibilities were lacerated.
Important topics	Circumstances of major importance.
Parts	Component elements.
Includes	Embraces within its scope.
Begin	Take the initiative.
Is guided by reason	Acts in subservience to the dictates of reason.
Let us climb this hill	Let us ascend this hill.
They narrowly escaped being burnt to death....	They miraculously escaped incineration.
I had dinner	I partook of my evening repast.
Barber *or* hair-cutter	Capillary and tonsorial artist.
A walk	A pedestrian excursion.
Asleep	Locked in slumber.
Children	Juvenile members of the community The rising generation.
He took off his clothes	He divested himself of his habiliments.

Married (of a woman)	...	Led to the hymeneal altar.
Was going fast ...	...	Was travelling with considerable velocity.
You are making a mistake	...	You are labouring under a delusion.
Burnt	...	Consigned to the flames.
Opponents	...	Antagonistic individuals.
Went with me as tutor ...	...	Accompanied me in the capacity of educational instructor.
It hurts very much ...	...	It is productive of distinctly painful sensations.
Is false	...	Belongs to the realm of fiction.
To wash	...	To perform one's ablutions.
They sent for the doctor	...	They called into requisition the services of the family physician.
I will say a few words ...	...	I beg leave to offer some brief observations.
I like the taste of it ...	...	It commends itself to my gustatory susceptibilities.

Similarly, people think it grand to speak of the *rendition* of a piece of music, instead of the *rendering*; of the *spoilation* of a medicine, instead of the *spoiling*; or of a mob's *indulging in* stone-throwing, instead of *taking to* or *beginning*. In newspapers a man never has his leg broken, but *sustains* or *suffers* a broken leg; he is never wounded in the head, but *sustains* a wound there; an interview is not granted, but *accorded*; an invitation is not given, but *extended*. An account of a disturbance at a public meeting runs:—

Fortunately the stewards were able to prevent the chairs (from) being used as lethal weapons, and *restored them to their legitimate purpose* (for "put them back in their places")

54. **Pretentious words.**—In the same way, do not use a pretentious word when a plain word will do, as—

Assist	*for*	help	Advent	*for*	coming
Peruse	,,	read	Apex	,,	top
Eventuate	,,	result	Residence	,,	house
Recuperate	,,	recover	Locality	,,	place
Exacerbate	,,	enrage	Establishment	,,	shop
Minify	,,	diminish	Altitude	,,	height
Constitute	,,	form	Dubiety	,,	doubt
Donate	,,	give	Vicinity	,,	neighbourhood
Desist	,,	stop	Species	,,	kind
Endeavour	,,	try	Entirety	,,	whole
Experience	,,	feel	Desideratum	,,	want
Retire	,,	go to bed	Proclivities	,,	tendencies
Capitulate	,,	yield	The majority	,,	most
Materialise	,,	come to pass, come into effect			
Inebriated	,,	drunk			

55. **Fine writing causes error.**—Thus in "At the earliest practicable period" (for "As soon as possible,") *period* is wrongly used to express "point of time." "I partook of refreshment" (for "I had something to eat") is incorrect, since *partake* (part-take) implies sharing; as, "He partook of my lunch." In "What did you observe, (for "say,") *observe*, which means "heed, take note of," is wrongly used. So "I will make a few *observations*" is incorrect for "I will say a few words." Do not use *partially* for "partly," or *portion* for "part." "To *witness* a marriage" should mean to act as witness to the signatures; write "To be present at a marriage." Reforms are *initiated* but "The proceedings were initiated" (for "begun") is inaccurate, and "The sale was inaugurated" (for "opened") is no better. *Transpire* means to "become known" and should not be used for "happen," as in "Much has transpired since we last met." "I *anticipated* you would be late" is wrong for "expected." "Very few were *conscious* of the conspiracy" should be "aware." "I doubt the *veracity* of this rumour" is wrong for "truth." "Do not use *apartments* for "rooms," *indicate* for "show," *intimate* for "say," *remark* for "see," *lengthened* or *lengthy* for "long." "North of Soissons we *effected* (for "made") further progress" is bad writing, as is "Soon after the address began there *arrived* (for "came" or "ensued") a profound silence.

56. **Colloquialisms.**—There are some expressions that are permissible in common speech and familiar letters, but not in written composition such as an essay. In talk even bad grammar is sometimes tolerated, but not of course in writing. Thus we often *say* "*Who* did you see?" and the correct "*Whom* did you see?" sounds somewhat pedantic; but we must *write* "whom" not "who." Similarly, "It is *me*," instead of the correct "It is *I*" and "Is that *him*?" for "Is that *he*?" may be spoken but not written. "I like this *best* of the two" is wrong for "I like this *better*," but is often used in talking. "Each of the boys and girls will receive a prize if *they* (instead of *he* or *she*) deserves it" is ungrammatical, but is often heard in conversation, in which "he or she" sounds cumbrous. A common conversational idiom to be avoided in writing, is the use of *and* for *to* in such sentences as "Be sure and tell him what I say," "Do try and be in time." A similar colloquialism is "*Nice and* warm," "*Nice and* dry" for *Nicely* (or very) warm," "*Nicely* dry," In speech the word *only* is commonly misplaced, and we say "Now-a-days an

umbrella only costs a trifling sum"; whereas we should *write* "costs only a trifling sum," Similarly, "I only saw him yesterday" should be written "I saw him only yesterday." Other expressions, such as "I am in a *fix*" (=a difficulty). "It is *ever so far* (=a very long way) to my house," "I *got* (= reached) home at 10 o'clock," "*Directly* (=as soon as) he arrives, we will start," "This loss is very *aggravating*" (=provoking), "I have been *quite* a long (=a very long) walk," "The affair made *quite* a sensation" (=a great sensation), "There were a *lot* of (=a great many) people present" are used in conversation, but are beneath the dignity of written composition.

In writing, again, we should omit the *to* and the *got* in "Where are you going to?" "I have got a bad cold," The word *that*, frequently omitted in talking, should usually be inserted in writing: "He feared in the end he might lose all he had won" should be "He feared *that* in the end he might lose all *that* he had won." Similarly, for "Lausanne was where Gibbon composed his history" write "*was the place* where"; for "I might have seen him, if I had wished to," write "if I had wished to *do so*"; for "It is of no use to say" write "no use"; for "Those boys are the same age" write "of the same"; and for "I hope you will stay dinner" write "stay *to* dinner."

Elided forms, used colloquially, like *didn't* for "did not," *hadn't* for "had not," *won't* for "will not," *shan't* for "shall not," *isn't* he? for "is he not?" *I'm* for "I am," *I've* for "I have," *'tis* and *it's* for "it is," *'twas* for "it was," *we're* for "we are," *let's* for "let us," should not be used except in reporting a conversation, a thing that seldom occurs in a school essay.[1] In the same way curt expressions such as *photo* for "photograph," *phone* for "telephone," *exam.* for "examination," *gym* for "gymnastic," *bike* for "bicycle," *doc* for "doctor," *digs* (=diggings) for "lodgings," tick (=ticket) for "credit," *quad* for "quadrangle," *circs* for "circumstances," *maths* for "mathematics," *Matric* for "Matriculation" are inadmissable. The following sentences contain colloquialisms (italised) which should be avoided in essay-writing:—

1. He *went in for* (=entered) the legal profession.
2. Scott *turned out* (=produced) two novels a year.
3. We held the proofs, so that he was obliged to *own up* (=make full confession).

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1 Never use *don't* for "doesn't" or "does not;" as, "He don't know when he is beaten."

4. No judge *worth his salt* (=of repute) could submit to such an insult.
5. Clive was a *plucky* (=brave) general.
6. The King *fancied* (=thought) that he had the right to refuse.
7. This subject is *nothing like* (=not nearly) so important as that.
8. The list is *nowhere near* (=not nearly) complete.
9. I do not know but *what* (=that) he is right.
10. Prose composition was not in Tennyson's *line* (=province).
11. Charles tried to *back out of* (=withdraw from) his engagement.
12. This discovery *bothered* (=troubled) Othello.
13. The minister saw that the King was *chaffing* (=bantering) him.
14. The cruelty of the conqueror *came out* (=was seen *or* was shown) in his treatment of the prisoners.
15. Queen Mary did her best to help Catholicism *along* (=to aid the progress of).
16. There is nothing *so very* (=specially) remarkable about bis success.
17. I *felt like turning* (=felt disposed to turn) him out of doors on the spot.
18. The enemy was defeated; but the conqueror had little reason to *crow over* (=boast of) his victory.
19. The nobles grew tired of *running* (=administering) the government.
20. Then Macbeth *came across* (=met) Macduff.
21. On the battle-field he *came across* (=found) the crown.
22. King John found himself in a *scrape* (=a difficult position).
23. If he is not careful, he will *come to grief* (=fail, be undone).
24. Lord North was apt to make a *fuss* (=disturbance) over small matters.
25. Never before had there been *such a great victory* (=so great a victory).
26. The Prime Mnister was not there. He had *left* (=gone away) before the meeting was held.
27. After remaining in England for *a couple of months* (=two months) he returned to Normandy.
28. They had *every* (=complete) confidence in him. He gave them *every* (=all possible) assistance.
29. Harold found it *a bit of a nuisance* (=unpleasant) to have to take the oath.
30. Elizabeth could not *stand* (=endure) her cousin, the Queen of Scots.
31. He *got up* (=formed) a conspiracy against the reigning monarch.
32. Of the whole council only one member *turned up* (appeared).
33. Charles *got into hot water* (=had difficulties) with his parliament.
34. The commander *had a bone to pick* (=an unpleasant matter to settle) with his officers.
35. The general was *handicapped* (=at a disadvantage, hampered) by his want of cavalry.
36. After defeating the rebels, the king *had a good time* (=gave himself up to enjoyment).
37. Hampden showed plenty of *grit* (=spirit, courage.)

57. Slang, cant, etc.—Slang, cant terms, vulgar expressions, and puns are offences against literary good taste and must never be introduced into an essay. Examples of slang are: "He *hooked it*" or "He *took his hook*," for "He went away;" "I am *jolly* (or *mighty*) glad to see you," for "very glad;" "He is an *awfully*[1] *decent chap*," for "a very pleasant man;" "*Terrifically* sorry" for "extremely sorry;" "We have had a *ripping* time," for "delightful;" "He had to *take a back seat*" for "keep in the background;" "He had *rotten* luck," for "bad;" "It was *hard lines on you*," for "very unfortunate for you;" "It was a *toss-up* which side would win," for "quite uncertain;" "I thought him very *stuck-up*," for "proud;" "He has *heaps* of friends," for "a great many;" "I ran *for all I was worth*," for "as fast as I could;" "I feel very *fit*," for "well;" "*precious* good," for "very good,"

Abbreviations such as *invite* for "invitation," *combine* for "combination," *biz* for "business," *sov.* for "sovereign," *cause* (or *cus*) for "because," *cert* for "certain," *sub* for "subscription," *pal* for "*comrade*," *hain't* for "haven't" *ain't* for "am not," *alright* for "all right," *gent* for "gentleman," are vulgar. So are the following:—

A *real* good time	for a *very* good time.
What's the *damage*?	,, the *cost*.
I shall return *inside* of an hour	,, *within* an hour.
My own country is *plenty* good enough for me	,, *quite* good enough.
He *took* ill	,, he *was taken* ill.
To enjoy a sail, the weather *wants* to be fine	,, *must* be fine (*or* fine weather *is needed*).
She is a very *stylish* person	,, *fashionable* person.
I dont *feel that way* about it	,, *those are not my feelings* about it.
The medicine did him a *power* (or a *sight*) of good	,, *a great deal* of good.
I feel *kind of* hungry	,, *rather* hungry.
He went away *unknown to me*	,, *without my knowledge*.

Shun the smart journalistic style of—"He *voiced* (expressed) the opinion of the people," "Chinese honesty is *stressed* (em-

1. The trivial use of words like "awful" or "horrid" has the unfortunate effect of impairing their expressiveness as literary words. The significance of Scott's "within that awful volume lies" etc. or of Milton's "Moloch, horrid King" is tainted by the cant use of the words. The same thing has happened with "ghastly" and "weird"; they are harped upon till they become ridiculous. The writer, out cycling, once met four young ladies, also cycling, on a narrow path. He dismounted to give them room to pass. The first said, "Thanks awfully."; the second said "Thanks awfully"; the third said "Thanks awfully"; and the fourth said "Thanks awfully."

phasised) in this book," " He *punctuated* (emphasised) his refusal by turning his back." " The retirement of the army has been *accentuated* (increased)." " This subject ought to be *ventilated* (discussed)." Politics *bulk* (or *loom*) largely (have a prominent place) in his pages," " Shakespere no longer *spells ruin* (means ruin, is ruinous) to theatre managers," We cannot *endorse* (approve, support) their views," " The *balance* (remainder) of the day was spent in repose," " His promises *must be largely discounted*" (are extravagantly great, are not worth much). " His wit *was a great factor in* (largely contributed to) his success," " Education is an important *asset* (advantage) even in a merchant's office." " He is well *posted* (informed) in these matters," " A *clamant* (crying) need," " A *virile* (forcible) expression," "The *avid* (eager) pursuit of wealth," " He *writes me*" (writes to me).

Avoid idioms or expressions taken from the French, as the common " it *goes without saying*," for " it may be taken for granted," or " it is needless to say ;" " the Town Councillors *assisted* at the ceremony," for " were present " ; " a *pronounced* failure," for " a decided failure ; " " a *banality* " for " a commonplace " ; " to be *in evidence*" for " to be conspicuous " ; " it *gives furiously to think* " for " it is matter for serious thought ; " *to the foot of the letter* " for " literally " ; " this question is *on the carpet*" for " under consideration " ; " an *embarrassment of riches* " for " superabundance ; " " let us return to *our muttons* " for " our subject."

Punning or any kind of word-play is entirely out of place in a school essay. Never try to be funny. Do not write " He was proud of this *feat* of walking or walking of the *feet*" or " I took him *by surprise* and *by the hand* at once," Indeed, all attempts at humour are best avoided by the young writer. Such attempts generally fall flat, and should be left to practised hands.

58. **Quotations.**—The introduction of quotations requires care. Four cautions are necessary :—

(1) *They should not be hackneyed.* Quotations that from frequent use have become commonplace repel a reader of taste. Examples :—

The cry is still they come
The time is out of joint
To be or not to be, that is the question
Hope springs eternal in the human breast
Far from the madding crowd
It wastes its sweetness on the desert air
The whirligig of time brings in his revenges
To burn the midnight oil

Thereby hangs a tale
Durance vile
At his own sweet will
The feast of reason and the flow of soul
Caviare to the general
There's the rub
Not wisely but too well
A thing of beauty is a joy for ever
The light, fantastic toe
More sinned against than sinning
Like angels' visits, few and far between
Their name is legion
As who should say
Othello's occupation's gone
Distance lends enchantment to the view
Sweetness and light
Tell it not in Gath
More in sorrow than in anger
Darkness visible
'Tis not in mortals to command success
The rest is silence
One touch of nature makes the whole world kin
The end is not yet
To own the soft impeachment

(2) *They should be accurate.* Misquotations are inexcuseable in essay-writing; they annoy the cultured, and mislead the ignorant, reader. The following are common misquotations, with the correct version in brackets :—

Fresh *fields* (woods) and pastures new
Lives (breathes) there *a* (the) man with soul so dead
Water, water, everywhere, *And not a* (nor any) drop to drink
The combat *thickens* (deepens)
Pursued (kept) the noiseless tenour of their way
Small (fine) by degrees and beautifully less
Screw your courage to the sticking *point* (place)
A goodly apple, rotten at the *core* (heart)
A Triton *among* (of) the minnows
I *ne'er shall* (shall not) look upon his like again
Chewing the *cud* (food) of sweet and bitter fancy
The devil can *quote* (cite) Scripture for his purpose.

(3) *They should be apt.* Do not drag in a quotation to show your learning, or turn aside from your theme in order to lead up to an otherwise pointless quotation.

(4) *They should be sparingly introduced.* Numerous quotations, however apt, soon become wearisome, and look like a parade of the writer's erudition.

Quotation marks, which are often omitted by writers from familiar quotations, should always be used by the young essay-writer, so as to avoid the possibility of laying himself open to the charge of plagiarism.

59. **Trite phrases.**—Do not bring in expressions that through much use have become tiresome and pointless. Examples :—

Greatly daring
Taking one's courage in both hands
Proven up to the hilt
I am bound to say
I hasten to say
The true inwardness
You may take it from me
It is come to stay
But that's another story
We hold no brief for
Too funny for words
At the psychological moment
Conspicuous by his absence
Every schoolboy knows
We may leave it at that
Leave severely alone
I have no use for it
A bolt from the blue
For all the world like

60. **Foreign words.**—Foreign words and expressions should, as a rule, be avoided by the young essay-writer. Naturalised words, that is, words that have been adopted into English from some other language without change of shape, such as *rajah, lascar, vista, bouquet, souvenir, stampede, equilibrium,* may be used when necessary; but expressions like *sobriquet* for "nickname," *eclat* or *kudos* (slang) for "renown, glory," *recherché,* for "rare, uncommon," *distingué* for "fashionable," *raison d' étre* for "ground of existence," *métier* for "trade, province," *literateur* for "literary man," "a *quondam* friend" for "a former friend," *chef d' oeuvre* for "masterpiece," *sotto voce* for "in a low voice," *nous avons changé tout cela* for "we have changed all that," *in extremis* for "at the point of death," are unnecessary and out of place in a short essay. Do not write: "The people ought to be consulted *re* (regarding) a matter of such importance. Of the following passages observe how affected and pretentious (*a*) is compared with (*b*):—

(*a*) I may remark *en passant* that I am *au fait* at cricket; *on dit* that I shall soon be in the First Eleven. *Jupiter pluvius* stopped our game yesterday, but I was *hors de combat* at the time with a sprained ankle. We could not have lunch *al fresco,* for which fine weather is a *sine qua non.*

(*b*) I may remark *by the way* that I am *a good hand* at cricket; *people say* that I shall soon be in the First Eleven. *Rain* stopped our game yesterday, but I was *disabled* at the time with a sprained ankle. We could not have lunch *out of doors,* for which fine weather is *indispensable.*

The want of adequate English substitutes is the only justification for the use of these foreign expressions. The following are better dispensed with:—

Amour propre, self-complacency
Arriére pensée, ulterior object
Bête noire, (one's) abomination
Bêtise, foolish remark or action
Brutum fulmen, vain boast
Compos mentis, sane
Confrère, colleague
Contretemps, hitch, mishap
Coup de grace, death blow
Coute que coute, at all costs
Dernier ressort, last resort
Emeute, outbreak, revolt

En régle, in due form
Entourage, surroundings
Esprit, wit
Fait accompli, accomplished fact
Fracas, quarrel, disturbance
Gouche, awkward, tactless
Hauteur, haughtiness
Juste milieu, golden mean
Lapsus linguæ, slip of the tongue
Maladroit, clumsy
Mal de mer, sea-sickness
Ne plus ultra, acme, climax
Nolens volens, willy-nilly
Nuance, nicety
Pabulum, food, material
Penchant, liking, fancy
Pis aller, last resource
Rara avis, a rarity
Sangfroid, coolness, composure
Sans, without
Terra firma, dry land
Terra incognita, unknown region
Vis-à-vis, opposite
Vraisemblance, plausibility
Zeitgeist, spirit of the times

61. **Archaisms.**—The introduction of old or obsolete words sounds affected and should be avoided. Such are:—

Albeit	*for*	since	Divers	*for*	various
Howbeit	,,	nevertheless	Bewray	,,	betray
Perchance / Peradventure	,,	perhaps	Intitule	,,	entitle
			Parlous	,,	perilous
Belike	,,	probably	Incontinently	,,	immediately
Thereof	,,	of it	Bemuse	,,	stupefy
Whereof[1]	,,	of which	Scant	,,	little
Withal	,,	with it, as well	Folk	,,	people
Anent	,,	concerning	Essay	,,	try

62. **Coined and far-fetched words.**—Do not strain after novelties in diction, but let your style be natural and unaffected. Do not use coined words, such as *erroneity* for "erroneousness," *correctitude* for "correctness;" or far-fetched words, such as *forbear* for "ancestor," *minify* for "underrate." Other examples are:—

Egolater	*for*	egoist	Contumacity	*for*	contumacy
Trepidous	,,	timid	Prejudicate	,,	prejudge
Preventative	,,	preventive	Intimity	,,	inwardness
Intensate	,,	intensify	Memorise	,,	learn by heart
Insuccess	,,	failure	Ruination	,,	ruin
Invitingness	,,	attractiveness			
Declination	,,	refusal			

63. **Nouns made into verbs.**—Similarly, do not make verbs out of nouns (or adjectives), a practice that appertains to poetry, not to prose, as:—

To loan	*for*	to lend	To intercess	*for*	to intercede
To firm	,,	to become firm	To emblem	,,	to symbolise

1. So with—*hereof*, *hereby*, *whereby*, *thereby*, *thereto*, *therefrom*, *heretofore*, (till now) *theretofore* (till then).

To resurrect	*for*	to revive	To enthuse *for*		to be *or* make enthusiastic
To clear	,,	to make clear			
To motive	,,	to instigate	To evidence	,,	to demonstrate
To sense	,,	to feel	To glimpse	,,	to have a [glimpse of

64. **Simile and Metaphor.**—Do not strain after figurative language. It may be used where it comes in naturally, but should always be sparingly introduced by the young writer. Metaphors add force and beauty to a composition more often than clearness. Thus to say that a man was a "lion," in the fight is forcible, but is not so clear as to say that he was *valiant*. To describe the sky as glowing with "living sapphires" is beautiful, but is not so clear as to say that it glowed with *bright stars*. "The ability," it has been remarked, "to write plain, bare English is absolutely indispensable. The ability to write figuratively is an enviable, but not a necessary possession. A figure that is not in good taste is incomparably worse than no figure at all." At the same time, the advantage to be derived from an apt simile or illustration should not be lost sight of. But care must be taken that the illustration *is* apt, otherwise it is better omitted.

Similes and Metaphors may be used for the sake of—(1) ornament, (2) force, (3) clearness. Figures, however, used for ornament should be sparingly introduced into ordinary prose; they belong rather to poetry. Figures used for force give life and emphasis to a statement and are so far serviceable; but they are of less importance than figures used for clearness, which add not only vividness but distinctness.

(1) *Ornament.*— Thus the similes (italicised) in the following passage are almost entirely ornamental; what they do is to add to the picturesqueness of the description :—

The large meadow lay before our window *like the Field of the Cloth of Gold*, so crowded was it with buttercups; the hawthorn bushes around were laden with blossom *like snow*, and the copses had in them spaces of bluebells that were *like "the heavens up-breaking through the earth."*

(2) *Force.*—In the following passages the similes and the metaphors are forcible; they add vigour to the statements :—

(*a*) He above the rest, in shape and gesture proudly eminent, stood *like a tower*.

(*b*) The lightning enveloped us *as with a mantle*; the thunders were louder than *the roar of a million cannon*.

(*c*) The land Act of 1881 *pulled the central brick out of* landlordism, and the whole *structure has been tumbling to pieces* ever since.

(This is more forcible than the literal statement, "The Land Act of 1881 caused vital injury to landlordism, which has been growing weaker and weaker ever since).

(3) *Clearness.*—In the following passages the similes and the metaphors are explanatory; they make the preceding statements clearer:—

(*a*) Down the hillside rushed the flood. Great boulders were tossed *like corks* on its surface, and houses and trees were swept away like *chaff before the wind.*

(*b*) He spoils the beauty of a moonlight evening by analysing it, to find out the pleasurable element; *like the little boy who cut open his drum to see what made the noise.*

(*c*) The policy of Augustus was to gain his ends quietly without unnecessarily exciting opposition; *to take out the nut with the least possible cracking of the shell.*

(*d*) Lord Beaconsfield bade an importunate suitor remember that titles and decorations were meant to be given, not extorted; that *the source of honour was a fountain, not a pump.*

Two Cautions.—1. Confusion of metaphors should be avoided, as:—

He afterwards became *entangled in the stormy sea of* politics, but emerged *victorious from the fray.* (Here we have three incongruous metaphors, politics being figured in the same sentence as at once a net, a sea, and a battle).

2. Be careful not to mix metaphorical with literal statement, as:—

He came out of the Examination with *flying colours* and the *highest possible marks.*

65. **Confusion of words.**—The young writer is apt to confuse the meaning of words. This confusion is due—(1) sometimes to a similarity of form or of sound in the words themselves, (2) sometimes merely to his ignorance of their correct usage.

(1) **Accept, except.** We *accept* a gift; we *except* a thing from a general statement.

Acceptance, acceptation. I sent my *acceptance* of the invitation. This word has a different *acceptation.*

Affect, effect. Noise *affects* his nerves. He did not *effect* his purpose.

Affection, affectation. A mother's *affection* for her child. My friendship for you is real; there is no *affectation* about it.

Apposite, opposite. This is an *apposite* quotation. *Opposite* the house stands a tree.

Ascendant, ascendancy. My star is in the *ascendant*. His strength of character gives him the *ascendancy*.

Attenuate extenuate. The villagers are *attenuated* with famine. Nothing can *extenuate* your conduct.

Avocation, vocation. His *vocation* is the law; gardening is his favourite *avocation*.

Barbarism, barbarity. The island is sunk in *barbarism*; the natives treat shipwrecked men with great *barbarity*.

Beneficent, beneficial. This is a kind and *beneficent* act. I found this medicine very *beneficial*.

Capable, capacious. A *capable* housewife. A *capacious* drawing-room.

Collision, collusion. A *collision* occurred on the railway. The thieves acted in *collusion* with the police.

Compliment, complament. We pay a *compliment*. A regiment has its *complement* of men.

Continuous, continual. Yesterday there were *continual* showers; to-day the rain is *continuous*.

Credibly, creditably. I am *credibly* informed that this is so. He behaved very *creditably* in this matter.

Decry, descry. Conscientious objections ought not to be *decried*. I *descried* him on a hill in the distance.

Deduce, deduct. What conclusion do you *deduce* from this statement? A large sum was *deducted* from his salary.

Deliverance, delivery. The hour of *deliverance* is at hand. The *delivery* of a speech or of letters.

Depreciate, deprecate. We should not *depreciate* other people's merits. We *deprecate* a person's displeasure.

Destiny, destination. His *destiny* is to be drowned. They left by train, London being their *destination*.

Eminent, imminent. Gladstone was an *eminent* man. I was saved from *imminent* loss.

Extract, extricate. Honey is *extracted* from flowers. The man was *extricated* from the ruins.

Flagrant, fragrant. *Flagrant* crimes. *Fragrant* flowers.

Flee, fly. Defeated enemies *flee*: birds and aviators *fly*.

Fluent, fluid. A *fluent* speaker. *Fluid* bodies.

Goal, gaol. He had reached the *goal* of his desires. The thief was sent to *gaol*.

Imaginary, imaginative. An *imaginary* ill. An *imaginative* writer.

Ingenious, ingenuous. An *ingenious* device. An *ingenuous* confession.

Judicial, judicious. This is little less than a *judicial* murder. Your behaviour was kind and *judicious*.

Luxurious, luxuriant. *Luxurious* ease. *Luxuriant* foliage.

Momentary, momentous. Anger is *momentary* madness. The French Revolution was a *momentous* event.

Necessaries, necessities. He has the *necessaries* of life. This will meet the *necessities* of the case.

Observation, observance. The *observation* of a star. The *observance* of the laws.

Official, officious. Warden is his *official* designation. He pressed his services upon me and was very *officious*.

Physic, physique. The patient needs little *physic*, as his constitution and *physique* are good.

Popular, populous. Bright was a *popular* orator. He lived in the *populous* town of Birmingham.

Precipitous, precipitate. A high, *precipitous* rock. A rash, *precipitate* action.

Principal, principle. The *principal* of a college. A man of high *principle*.

Product, production. Rice is a *product* of Bengal. "Hamlet" is one of Shakespere's *productions*.

Propose, purpose. I *purpose* to carry out the plan you *propose*.

Prescribe, proscribe. These are the rules *prescribed*. These dangerous doctrines are *proscribed*.

Resource, recourse. To beg was his last *resource*. He was obliged to have *recourse* to begging.

Respectful, respectable, respected. I received a *respectful* letter from the agent, a *respectable* man, addressing me as "*Respected* Sir."

Reverend, reverent. The *reverend* Archbishop. Be *reverent* at Church.

Sanguine, sanguinary. I am *sanguine* of success. A *sanguinary* battle.

Sanitory, Sanitary. *Sanitory* agencies succeed under *sanitary* conditions.

Sequel, Sequence. What is the *sequel* to this story? This happened in the ordinary *sequence* of events.

Servitude, servility. A state of *servitude* produces an attitude of *servility*.

Signification, significance. What is the *signification* of this accent? Small things often have great *significance*.

Stationary, stationery. Some trains were moving, some were *stationary*. He sells books and *stationery*.

Statue, statute, stature. A *statue* of Wellington. Laws and *statutes*. Goliath was of great *stature*.

Suspense, suspension. Do not keep me in *suspense*. A *suspension* of hostilities.

Stop, stay. The train *stops* at this station. I am *staying* at the inn.

Venal, venial. A *venal* crew of scribblers. A *venial* offence.

Wave, waive. He *waved* his hand to me. I *waive* my claim.

Wreck, wreak. He *wrecked* my career in order to *wreak* his vengeance on me.

(2) **Allude, refer.** He *alluded* to a matter to which he dared not openly *refer*.

At, in. I live *in* London *at* a boarding-house.

Between, among. The two boys divided *between* them the cake which should have been divided *among* all the boys.

Either, any. You may take *either* of these two pictures or *any* of these three books.

Eliminate, elicit. We will first *eliminate* all superfluous matters. Inquiry will *elicit* the truth.

Fetch, bring, take. Go and *fetch* me a hammer, and *bring* your breakfast; *take* a bag with you.

From, since, for. He has been lame *from* childhood. He has been lame *since* last year. He has been lame *for* two years.

Go, come. I hear that you, like me, are *going* to the concert. Will you *come* with me?

Hire, let. He *let* me the room that I *hired* from him.

Last, latest. I have read the *latest* novel to the *last* page.

Latter, last. He brought a goat and a whip, the *latter* being broken. He brought a goat, a rope, and a whip, the *last* being broken.

Lay, laid; Lie, lain. They have *laid* down their arms. He has *lain* down to rest.

Less, fewer. I ordered *fewer* horses and *less* corn.

Literally, actually. What you say is not *literally* true; indeed you have *actually* told a lie.

Mistake, be mistaken. You *mistake* my meaning. You *are mistaken* in this matter.

Some, any. I have *some* pens, but I have not brought *any* ink

Substitute, replace. An oar was *substituted* for the broken mast. The broken mast was *replaced* by an oar.

Testimony, evidence. The *testimony* of the witness was contradicted by the other *evidence*.

Transpire, happen. The whole story at length *transpired*, and we knew what *happened*.

Without, unless. I will not go *without* you. I will not go *unless* you go.

CHAPTER IV.

Spelling and Punctuation; Summary.

66. **Spelling.**—A knowledge of spelling, like good handwriting and correct punctuation, is one of the earliest essentials to essay-writing. English spelling no doubt presents some difficulties, but it can be mastered if you set about the task in the right way. For this purpose you should—(1) have a dictionary at hand to consult whenever you are in doubt; (2) make a list of the words that you misspell, and practise yourself on them; (3) commit to memory the main rules of spelling, and apply them when you are in search of a spelling: (4) note the derivation and formation of words—often a help to their spelling; (5) be careful about the pronounciation of words; careless pronounciation leads to careless spelling: thus if you *say* "benificent" (instead of "beneficent,") or "supprise" (instead of "surprise") you will be apt to write them; (6) mark the spelling of the printed word when you are reading. This last is the most important aid of all to good spelling, for by this means you will get to know by the *look* of a word whether it is rightly or wrongly spelt, and correct spelling will come to you naturally as it were.

I. The following forms deserve special attention:—

(1) *ie, ei*: believe, perceive, etc.
(2) *-ceed, -cede*; proceed, precede, etc.
(3) *-able, -ible*; eatable, edible, etc.
(4) *-ent, -ant*; prevalent, complaisant, etc.
(5) The Possessives of Proper Nouns ending in *-s*: *Sing.* James's (*not* James'); *Plur.* Jameses'. Also *Plur. Nom.* and *Accus.* Jameses *not* James's.

II. Note the following anomalies:—

Deceive, deceit	*but*	Receive, receipt
Suffer, sufference	,,	Hinder, hindrance
Pure, purify	,,	Rare, rarefy (*and* rarify)
Mountain, mountainous	,,	Villain, villanous (*and* villainous)
Murder, murderous	,,	Monster, monstrous
Thunder, thunderous	,,	Idolater, idolatrous
Danger, dangerous	,,	Wonder, wondrous

Dexterous	,,	Ambidextrous
Murderer, murderess	,,	Emperor, empress
Duke, dukedom	,,	Wise, wisdom
Mire, miry	,,	Fire, fiery
Liquefy	,,	Liquidate
Stratagem	,,	Strategy
Proceed	,,	Procedure
Comparative	,,	Comparison

III. The following two lists will be found useful :—

(1) Words of the same or of similar sound that differ in spelling and meaning :—

aisle, *of a church*
isle, *island*

angel, *divine messenger*
angle, *corner, to fish*

altar, *for sacrifice*
alter, *to change*

areas, *regions*
arrears, *debts*

ascent, *going up*
assent, *agreement*

aught, *anything*
ought, *the verb*

beach, shore
beech, *tree*

beer, *the drink*
bier, *for a corpse*

berry, *fruit*
bury, *to inter*

birth, *being born*
berth, *bed on a ship*

blue, *colour*
blew, *did blow*

born, *brought into life*
borne, *carried*

breach, *gap*
breech, *hinder part*

bridal, *nuptial*
bridle, *of a horse*

brooch, *ornament*
broach, *to pierce*

calendar, *almanac*
calender, *roller-machine*

cannon, *great gun*
canon, *rule*

canvas, *coarse cloth*
canvass, *to solicit votes*

cast, *throw*
caste, *breed*

ceiling, *of a room*
sealing, *with wax*

champagne, *wine*
champaign, *open country*

clamant, *noisy*
claimant, *one who claims*

cord, *string*
chord, *in music*

council, *assembly*
counsel, *advice*

cruise, *voyage*
cruse, *bottle*

cue, *in acting and billiard*
queue, *line of persons*

currant, *small grape*
current, *circulating*

decease, *death*
disease, *malady*

dependent, *adj.*
dependant, *noun*

descendent, *adj.*
descendent, *noun*

desert, *to abandon*
dessert, *fruit*

dual, *double*
duel, *a single combat*

dyeing, *colouring*
dying, *expiring*

faint, *weak*
feint, *pretence*

faun, *satyr*
fawn, *deer*

flour, *meal*
flower, *blossom*

forth, *out*
fourth, *from four*

gamble, *to play for money*
gambol, *to frisk*

grizzly, *grey*
grisly, *frightful*

hoard, *to store up*
horde, *tribe*

hole, *pit*
whole, *entire*

hoop, *band*
whoop, *the sound*

jam, *of fruit, to squeeze*
jamb, *side-post of a door*

key, *for a lock*
quay, *of a harbour*

lath, *strip of wood*
lathe, *machine*

licence, *noun*
license, *verb*

lightning, *flash*
lightening, *lessening making bright*

lose, *part with*
loose, *relax*

magnate, *great man*
magnet, *loadstone*

mantle, *cloak*
mantel, *of fireplace*

meddle, *to interfere*
medal, *coin*

metal, *as iron*
mettle, *courage*

meter, *measure*
metre, *in verse*

mussel, *shell-fish*
muscle, *part of body*

oar, *for rowing*
ore, *crude metal*
o'er, *over*

pallet, *a bed*
palette, *of a painter*
palate, *of the mouth*

passed, *gone*
past, *not present*

pedal, *worked by foot*
peddle, *to trifle*

peace, *rest*
piece, *part*

pier, *jetty*
peer, *noblemen*

plain, *clear, etc.*
plane, *a tree, etc.*

plum, *a fruit*
plumb, *to fathom*

practice, *noun*
practise, *verb*

pray, *to entreat*
prey, *plunder*

president, *one who presides*
precedent, *example*

rapt, *transported*
wrapt, *enclosed*

reck, *to care*
wreck, *to shatter*

right, *straight*
rite, *ceremony*

write, *indite*
wright, *maker*

skull, *of the head*
scull, *oar*

slight, *trivial*
sleight, *trick*

sew, *with a needle*
sow, *to plant*

stake, *of wood*
steak, *of beef*

stayed, *remained*
staid, *dignified*

story, *tale*
storey, *of a house*

straight, *direct*
strait, *narrow*

style, *manner of writing*
stile, *set of steps*

surplus, *excess*
surplice, *a garment*

taught, *instructed*
taut, *tight*

tear, *from the eye*
tier, *a row*

teem, *to abound*
team, *of oxen*

tenor, *purport, etc.*
tenure, *holding* (of land, etc.)

their, *pronoun*
there, *adverb*

vain, *fruitless*
vane, *weathercock*
vein, *blood-vessel*

vale, *valley*
veil, *for the face*

wain, *waggon*
wane, *to decline*

wait, *to stay*
weight, *heaviness*

waste, *to squander*
waist, *the middle*

weather, *state of air*
whether, *if*
wether, *sheep*

week, *seven days*
weak, *feeble*

won, *did win*
one, *the number*

yew, *a tree*
ewe, *female sheep*

yoke, *of oxen*
yolk, *of an egg*

(2) Words that are apt to be misspelt :—

Abbreviate
accede
accelerate
accessible
accomodation
accompaniment
accumulate
accurate
acetylene
achieve
acquaintance
acquiesce
acquittal
address
admissible
advisable
aghast
aggravate
agreeable
allege
alchohol
allegiance
almond
amenity
amphibious
analogous
analyse (*not* analyze)
anatomy
ancient
ankle (*or* ancle)
annalist
announce
annually
anomalous
anonymous
antidote
antithesis
apophthegm
appal
apparatus
apparition
apostasy (*not* apostacy)
apostle
appreciate
arraign
artisan
ascertain
ascetic
assassin
assurance
athletic
attach
automaton
average
awful
awkward
azure

Balloon
bankruptcy
banquet
barometer
barricade
basin
bauble
beacon
beggar
believe
beneficent
benefited
bereave
beseech
besiege
beverage
bicycle
billiards
bivouac
bleach
blissful
blithe
boulder
Britain
Britannia
browse
bugle
buoyant
burglar
by the by

Cabinet
caitiff
calibre
campaign
camphor
cannibal
canopy
capital
capricious
caravan
carcass
caricature
carol
carousal
carriage
casualty
catalogue
caterpillar
cauliflower
cavilling
celibacy
cemetery
centenary
centennial
chagrin
chandelier
changeable
chapel
chaplain
character
charlatan
chestnut
chimney
chrysalis
cider (*not* cyder
cinematograph
clamorous
coalesce
coarse
coax
coincidence
college
colonel
colonnade
column
committee
comparative
comparison
competitive
concede
conceive
conscious
correspond
corroborate
corollary
couple
covetous
crescent
criterion
criticism
crystal
cuirass
cylinder
cypress

Dearth
decalogue
deceive
decision
decrepit
defendant
deign
delegate
delicacy
delineate
demeanour
derogatory
destroy
develop
devise
dexterous
dialogue
dilapidated
dilemma
diocese
disappoint
discomfiture
discreet
dishevel
dispensary
distil
divine
divisible
doggerel
dominant
donkey
dormitory
draught
drought
drowsy
dynasty

Earnest
eccentricity
ecstasy
effervesce
effigy
eligible
embarrass
emissary
empress
encroach
encyclopædia
endue
engine
ennoble
enthusiasm
enveigle
etiquette
etymology
exaggerate
exasperate
exceed
excel
exchequer
excite
exhaust
exhilaration
expire
extraordinary
exuberant

Fascinate
February
fiery
flourish
forfeit
forty
fourteen
fossil
freer
freight
friar
fuchsia
fulfil
funeral
furlough
furniture

Gardener
gaudy
gauntlet
gelatinous
genealogy
gibbet
gibe
giraffe
glimpse
glutton
glycerine
gnaw
goddess
goodbye
grieve
grammar
granary
grate
grocer
guarantee
guardian
guerilla
guild
gutteral

Hæmorrhage
hammock
handiwork
(*not* handywork
handkerchief
handsome
harangue
harass
heinous
heifer
hereditary
heterogeneous
hindrance
hoarse
holiday
horde
horizon
humorous
hurricane
hydrophobia
hygiene
hyprocrisy
hysterical

Illegible
illiterate
immediate
imitate
independent
indescribable
indict
inoculate
interrupt
intercede
intricacy
intrigue
inveigh
irrelevant
isthmus

Jaunty
jeer
jealous
jeopardy
jewelry, jewellery
jostle
journey

juvenile

Kernel
knoll
knowledge

Laborious
labyrinth
lacquer
launch
laundry
league
legible
legitimate
leisure
leopard
lettuce
libellous
lightning
liquefy
liquidate
literature
litigation
lozenge
lucrative
luncheon

Machinery
magazine
malevolence
mantelpiece
manœuvre
marriage
martyr
masquerade
massacre
mattress
menagerie
medicine
mercenary
message
messenger
military
milliner
miracle
miscellaneous
missile
molasses
monkey
morocco
moustache
murderous
mutineer
myrrh
mystery
mythical

Negligible
negotiate (*not* negociate)
necessary
neigh
neighbour
net (*not* nett)
niece
nuisance

Obeisance
occasion
occurrence
oculist
onion
opaque
oracle
origin
oscillate
oxygen

Pamphlet
panegyric
panic
parachute
paragon
paralyse (*not* paralyze)
parasite
parricide
pavilion
peaceable
pelisse
penitent
permissible
perceive
phosphorous
physician
piebald
pigeon
pittance
pity
plagiarism
plebeian
pleurisy
polygamy
poniard
pony
porridge
potato
poultice
precedence
precipice
preferable
prejudice
prerogative
prevalent
privilege
proceed
procedure
proficient
propagate
providence
puissant
pulley
punish
purify
pursue
purveyor
putrefy

Quarantine
quarrel

Raiment
ravenous
realm
recede
receipt
receptacle
regiment
rehearsal
relevant
relieve
religious
remedy
renegade
repetition
representative
reprieve
requital
resurrection
revenue
reverie
rhetoric
rheumatic
rhinoceros
ridiculous
righteous
roguery

Sacrilege
salutary
saucer
scatheless
sceptic
schedule
scheme
scholar
science
scintillate
scissors
scythe
secede
secrecy
sediment
sedentary
seize
sensitive
separate
several
sewer
siege
sieve
sinecure
siphon
siren (*not* syren)
skein
skeleton
skulk(*not* sculk)
sleight-of-hand
solicit
soluble
sorcery
speech
sponge
stalactite
staunch
stratagem
stratagy
stupefy (*not* stupify)
subtle
subtract
succeed
sufferance
summary
supererogation
supplement
surety
surfeit
surname (*not* sirname)
surprise
susceptible
syllable
symbol
symmetrical
symptom
system
synonymous

Tariff
tenement
testament
threaten
thunderous
tiro (*not* tyro)
treadle
treasure
transcendant
treble
tremendous
twelfth
tying
tyrant

Unanimous
unique
underrate
unparalleled
until
urchin
utensil

Vacillate
valiant
variegated
vegetable
vehement
veil
vengeance
venomous
verandah
vestige
veteran
vicissitude
vigorous
vilify
villainous
vinegar
visible
vivify
vixen
vocabulary
votary

Waif
wasteful
Wednesday
weird
whirl
wholesome
wield
wintry (*not* wintery)
woeful
woollen
worshipper
wreak

Yacht
yeoman
yield

67. Comma punctuation.—Correct punctuation is an important means of making the sense clear. The young and inexperienced writer often has a way of separating his statements merely by commas, and almost ignoring the use of semicolons, colons, and full stops. Observe how the following passage gains in clearness by being properly punctuated. This is the passage with comma punctuation :—

(*a*) Being small, the house was naturally full, the six people who lived there were enough to account for that, but it was also unnaturally

full by reason of the owner's habit of acquiring old furniture and pictures, these things flooded floors and walls, and overflowed on to the strip of gravel behind, there were periodical clearances, but the gaps were soon made good by a fresh influx.

This is the same passage, properly punctuated :—

(*b*) Being small, the house was naturally full; the six people who lived there were enough to account for that. But it was also unnaturally full by reason of the owner's habit of acquiring old furniture and pictures. These things flooded floor and walls, and overflowed on to the strip of gravel behind. There were periodical clearances; but the gaps were soon made good by a fresh influx.

"Nothing," writes a distinguished Professor of English Composition "except habitual bad spelling, can give a stronger impression of illiteracy than the use of the comma in separating clauses which either should be made independent sentences, or, if they can be considered as belonging to the same sentence, should be separated by semicolons." Similarly, clauses joined by *and* and separated by a comma, must, if *and* is omitted, be separated by a semicolon, as :—

(*a*) Their leader was struck down by a chance shot, and the men at once surrendered.

(*b*) Their leader was struck down by a chance shot; the men at once surrendered.

68. **Summary.**—The advice given in the foregoing pages may be briefly summed up in the following Rules for Essay-writing :—

1. Choose your subject quickly but carefully, and abide by your choice (§ 4).
2. Make sure of the meaning of the subject you have chosen (§§ 5-7).
3. Keep to the subject and avoid digressions (§ 8).
4. Collect ideas on the subject and form an outline according to the rules given (§§ 9-18).
5. Study your outline before commencing the Essay (§ 19).
6. Make your opening remarks brief; ways of commencing (§ 20).
7. Write simply (§ 21).
8. Observe proportion (§ 22).
9. Divide your Essay into paragraphs (§ 23).

10. Connect your sentences; two good ways and one bad way (§§ 24, 25).
11. Employ transitional and introductory sentences (§§ 26, 27).
12. Make your sentences short (§ 28).
13. Do not introduce parentheses (§ 28.)
14. Prefer usually the periodic to the loose sentence, and do not mix them (§ 29).
15. Let your sentences have unity of thought and structure (§ 30).
16. Avoid (1) incongruous and (2) confused constructions (§§ 31, 32).
17. Beware of careless writing (§ 33).
18. Do not use the "historic present" (§ 34).
19. Be careful about the position of the parts of a sentence (§§ 35-39).
20. Avoid ambiguity; four causes (§ 40).
21. Be careful how you use qualifying phrases (§ 41).
22. End your Essay well; methods (§ 42).
23. Be precise in your use of words (§§ 43, 44).
24. Except in personal narrative, do not introduce "I" and "you," and never say "we" (§§ 45, 46).
25. Avoid tautology and pleonasms (§§ 47, 48).
26. Avoid needless repetition (§ 49).
27. Shun verbosity and periphrasis (§ 50, 51).
28. Write idiomatically (§ 52).
29. Shun "fine writing" and pretentious words; a cause of error (§§ 53, 54, 55).
30. Do not use colloquialisms (§ 56).
31. Shun slang, cant terms, vulgarisms, and puns (§ 57).
32. Be careful about inserting quotations (§ 58).
33. Avoid trite phrases, archaisms, and coined or far-fetched words (§§ 59, 61, 62).
34. Do not introduce foreign words and phrases (§ 60).
35. Be sparing in the use of metaphors, and do not mix them (§ 63).
36. Do not confuse words (§ 64).
37. Learn correct spelling and punctuation (§§ 65, 66).

SAMPLE ESSAYS

1. NARRATIVE ESSAYS

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS

Outline

(1) Introduction.
   (*a*) Columbus's plan.
   (*b*) His difficulties.
(2) The voyage.
   (*a*) Preparations.
   (*b*) Consternation and mutiny on board.
   (*c*) Landing at San Salvador.
(3) Conclusion; Columbus's character and work.

Essay

Christopher Columbus was born at Genoa in the middle of the fifteenth century. His father sent him to school at Pavia, and Christopher seems to have been early interested in astronomy and navigation. After making several short voyages of discovery and residing in various parts of the world, Columbus made up his mind to discover a new route to Asia by crossing the Atlantic. With this end in view he applied for help to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. At the Spanish court he was treated sometimes as an idle dreamer, sometimes as a needy applicant for favour. His humble dress and his want of high connexions and of academic honours formed, in the eyes of the courtiers, an inexplicable contrast to his brilliant proposals and aspirations. But indigence and contumely could not shake the determination of Columbus. Again and again the Spanish king deferred interviews with him and refused his petitions, till at length Columbus was on the point of seeking better fortune at the court of France when the interference of Queen Isabella turned the current in his favour and it was decided to give the poor adventurer a trial.

In August 1492 Columbus embarked on his memorable expedition with three ships, provided by the King of Spain, and a hundred and twenty men, the latter full of doubts and fears, and indeed partly pressed into the service.

Many as were the difficulties that beset Columbus before he sailed, the worst arose when his ships were out of sight of land. As soon as the Canary Islands were sunk beneath the horizon, consternation and despair took possession of the crew. Columbus was obliged to keep them in ignorance of the progress they were making into unknown seas, lest their terror should become ungovernable. He therefore adopted the practice of keeping two charts, a false one for the benefit of the sailors, and a true one for his own private use. In order to appear confident of success he kept his course due west, and never turned aside in search of islands which he judged by floating weeds and other indications to be near his course. As the days and weeks wore on, the sailors grew more and more mutinous. When two months had passed since they left their native land, they grew so desperate that they actually meditated throwing their captain overboard and setting sail for home. Columbus now ceased trying to pacify them in friendly manner, and assumed a tone of severe authority. Nothing but his indomitable faith and resolution could have triumphed over the difficulties he had to face. For he alone of all that company believed that land, the land of promise, lay before them, and, strong in that belief, he was able to carry through his enterprise to the end, in spite of opposition and mutiny.

On the 11th of October the signs of land ahead were so unmistakable as to convince the most incredulous. That night not an eye was closed. All waited in breathless suspense for the morning to disclose the longed-for shore. When the sun rose and revealed the New World to the eager eyes of the weary sea-farers, even the most mutinous were filled with the joy of discovery. With tears of joy Columbus kissed the earth on which he landed, and with much solemnity and fervent thanksgiving planted the cross on the beautiful island of San Salvador. This he believed to be the Eastern coast of Asia, and hence the natives whom he found there were called Indians, and the group of islands to which San Salvador belongs still bears the name of the " Indies."

The story of Columbus is the story of a great mind battling against terrible odds, a strong personality overcoming opposition by the mere strength of its belief in a divinely-appointed mission.

" Still steer on, brave heart ! though witlings laugh at thy emprize,
And though the helmsmen drop weary and nerveless their hands.
Westward, westward still ! there land must emerge to the vision ;
There it lies in its light, dear to the eye of the mind."

2. A COLLISION AT SEA

Outline

(1) Perils of the sea.
- (*a*) Storms.
- (*b*) Fire.
- (*c*) Fog.
- (*d*) Collisions (the worst).

(2) The collision.
- (*a*) Sudden crash.
- (*b*) Engines reversed in vain.
- (*c*) Discipline on board.
- (*d*) One vessel escapes serious damage.

(3) Transfer of those on board.
- (*a*) Woman and children first.
- (*b*) Then the male passengers.
- (*c*) Lastly the crew and the captain.

(4) Conclusion.

Essay

How many perils menace those who "go down to the sea in ships"—perils from storms, from fire, from fog, and from collisions with other vessels ! Of these the last is, in the nature of things, most likely to happen without the possibility of warning or preparation. Storms can be foreseen by the appearance of the sky or the fall of the barometer long before they burst upon the ship ; fire can be detected in its beginning by the sense of smell and by the presence of smoke ; and though fogs are dangerous enough, for that very reason ships in a fog move with the utmost caution.

But a collision, when all seems well ! The night is thick

and cloudy, but the captain has taken his bearings, the ship is travelling full steam ahead, while the passengers are sleeping peacefully. Suddenly through the darkness flash the lights of another steamer. The engines are reversed, all is done that can be done to avert the threatened catastrophe, but in vain; in a moment the two vessels are crashing into each other. The shock awakens some of the passengers, and cries of alarm and hurryings to and fro add to the confusion of the first few minutes. But the sailors are disciplined to obedience, and order is speedily restored. The terrible question now rises in all hearts, "Will both ships go down?" but soon it becomes evident that, though one vessel is sinking fast, the other still keeps afloat; and the energies of the officers are bent on transferring everyone from their own ship to the other before it is too late.

The less injured vessel draws away a little, that it may not be sucked down with the sinking ship; but all available lights are hung out to guide the boats, and all hands not engaged in attending to the damage to their own vessel, are in readiness to help the rescued on board. The order, "Women and children first!" rings out through the doomed ship and while the sailors stand resolutely to their posts, the women and children are brought up from the cabins, some weeping and terror-stricken, others pale and calm, and one by one are lowered into the boats. It is a sad moment for husbands and wives who are thus separated, without knowing whether the boats will return in time to save the men; but all realise the need of ready obedience in such a crisis, and the boats put off without interference or delay. Willing hands help these first boat-loads up the sides of the other ship, which look terribly high and inaccessible as they all are safely transferred. No sooner have the crew and finally the captain left the sinking ship, than with a deafening roar it is engulfed in the waves. The last boat-load is almost drawn down with it, but succeeds in getting safe away through the swirling waters to the welcoming lights of the other vessel.

Such is a brief sketch of a collision at sea, as, happily, it usually occurs; but not infrequently, after a collision, shipwrecked crews and passengers have been compelled to put to sea in open boats without knowing how long it might be before they should be rescued by a passing steamer from their perilous situation.

3. THE BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA

Outline

(1) The situation of affairs.
  (*a*) Succession of Surajah Dowlah.
  (*b*) Wealth and defencelessness of Calcutta.

(2) The fall of Calcutta.
  (*a*) Flight of the governor.
  (*b*) Feeble defence by the traders.
  (*c*) Dowlah's disappointment.
  (*d*) The prisoners left to the mercy of his soldiers.

(3) The Black Hole.
  (*a*) Description.
  (*b*) Death of 123 out of 146 prisoners.

(4) The punitive expedition.
  (*a*) Battle of Plassey.
  (*b*) Death of Dowlah.

(5) Conclusion.

Essay

In the year 1756 Surajah Dowlah succeeded to the sovereignty of Bengal. He was a youth of 19, whose naturally vicious character had been made worse by self-indulgence. His cupidity was excited by the report of the riches of the English trading settlement at Calcutta. He was too short-sighted to see that their trade brought him more wealth than any booty could do, and too ignorant to realise the greatness of the power whose vengance he must inevitably face. On some flimsy pretext he raised an army and marched upon Calcutta.

In Madras the East India Company had insisted that its servants should be soldiers as well as traders, but the same wise precaution had not been taken with regard to those in Bengal. Upon the approach of Surajah Dowlah the Governor and the military commander both fled to the ships for safety; without them the traders made but a feeble resistance, and were soon overpowered. Surajah Dowlah, however, was bitterly disappointed at the small amount of plunder he obtained, and consoled himself by violently abusing his unfortunate captives.

Believing that the company's treasures must be concealed somewhere, he finally promised his prisoners their lives in the hope of inducing them to reveal the secret. He then retired to rest, leaving them to the disposal of his guards, men who had never learnt the "quality of mercy" from their master.

In the fort was a small room eighteen feet square, known by the name of the " Black hole prison " with two small barred windows high up in the walls. In the close atmosphere of an Indian summer, a place so small and ill-ventilated would have caused discomfort to a single individual shut up in it for the night. Into this room the guards drove all the prisoners, to the number of one hundred and forty-six, and locked them in. Their sufferings may be imagined from the fact that the next morning only twenty-three were still alive, and these were so disfigured by the horrors they had gone through as to be quite unrecognisable.

This inhuman deed took place on the 20th of June, and the news of it did not reach Madras till August. A punitive expedition was immediately equipped, with Clive in command, and Surajah Dowlah was decisively defeated at the battle of Plassey. He was soon after put to death by Mir Jaffir, whom the victorious English had placed upon his throne.

Thus ended this terrible episode in Anglo-Indian history; and seeing that the war which Clive undertook to avenge the outrage ended in the British conquest of India, it is hardly too much to say that the foundations of the new empire were laid in the sufferings of those that perished in the Black Hole of Calcutta.

4. THE ELEPHANT'S REVENGE

Outline

(1) The wild beasts' show; the elephant carries the children round on his back.

(2) A tailor on the road-side sits at work, with buns beside him.

(3) The elephant, stretching out his trunk for a bun, is pricked by the tailor's needle instead.

(4) The elephant takes his revenge by drenching the tailor with water from his trunk.

Essay

It was a fine day in July and the little town of Hammerton was full of groups of eager, chattering people, for it was the day of the annual Fair, and, to help in the merry-making, there had arrived the night before a travelling wild beasts' show. Amongst its many attractions was the always popular one of a ride on an elephant, and the children were already crowding round the huge creature, eager for the treat. The elephant in this case was a particularly fine animal, gifted with a quick intelligence and a simple trust in human nature; for he had always been kindly treated, and his keeper was proud of his gentleness and affection. A small group of children were soon ensconced in the comfortable seats on the elephant's back, and the elephant gravely tramped along the road amid the happy shouts and laughter of the young people.

It happened that at one point in the road along which the elephant was going his appointed round, was a tailor's shop, where at the open window, sat the tailor, busily sewing, and by his side lay a little pile of buns he had just bought from a passing hawker.

Now our elephant was very fond of buns; he had often been presented with them by his admirers; and thinking that the tailor could surely spare one out of so many, as he reached the shop, he extended his long trunk through the window for the expected dainty. The tailor knew what the elephant wanted; but, in a spirit of mischief, instead of a bun, he thrust his sharp needle into the animal's sensitive proboscis. Pained and surprised, the elephant quickly withdrew his trunk, and passed on apparently without resenting the injury.

The amusements of the morning were at length over, and the children were called away to their dinner. To the elephant also came an interval of rest and refreshment, and when he was led round to the water-butt his keeper noticed that he drank longer and deeper than usual. Then the children were again crowded upon his back, and he set out on his usual round. As he went along he looked carefully at the groups of busy traders and interested spectators, and presently he caught sight of the tailor, who, "unconscious of his doom," sat at work on his bench. Suddenly the merry-makers were startled by a sound something between a snort and a hiss, and turning they saw the elephant squirting a stream of water from his trunk over the

astonished tailor, who was almost knocked over by the sudden discharge. The spectators raised a cry of delight at the animal's sagacity in thus inflicting a well-deserved punishment on his tormentor. As for the soaked and shivering tailor, let us hope that he took to heart the lesson taught him by the elephant, and that he never again wantonly ill-treated an unoffending fellow-creature.

5. THE STORY OF ULYSSES AND THE CYCLOPSES

Outline

(1) The landing on the island of the Cyclopses.
  (*a*) Polyphemus's reception of Ulysses.
  (*b*) His men killed and eaten.

(2) The revenge of Ulysses.
  (*a*) He finds and sharpens a pole.
  (*b*) He gives Polyphemus wine, and deceives him about his name.
  (*c*) The blinding of Polyphemus.
  (*d*) No help for him from the other Cyclopses.

(3) The escape.
  (*a*) The party, slung beneath the sheep, pass out of the cave unperceived by Polyphemus.
  (*b*) Ulysses embarks and taunts Polyphemus.
  (*c*) Polyphemus hurls a rock and nearly sinks the ship.

(4) Conclusion.

Essay

Among the many adventures of Ulysses, the most thrilling perhaps was his encounter with the Cyclopses. Leaving most of his company behind, Ulysses set out with one ship to explore their islands. He took with him a few picked men, and presently reached a sheep-fold, where they awaited the coming of the owner. At length the bleating of flocks was heard, and driving a number of fat, woolly sheep, the monster Polyphemus appeared. At sight of him Ulysses and his men fled in terror, and hiding themselves at the back of the cave, watched the Cyclops's proceedings. First he rolled against the entrance a rock so

big that not twenty ordinary men could move it; and then having milked and fed the ewes, he spied the intruders, and instantly seizing two of the men devoured them for his evening meal. Then he lay down to sleep. Meanwhile Ulysses pondered over plans of vengeance and escape. He saw clearly that to draw his sword and slay the giant would be useless, for then, shut in as they were by the huge stone, they could have no hope of getting out of the cave. So he determined to wait and overcome Polyphemus by guile.

In the morning the giant devoured two more men, and then drove his flock to the pastures, leaving the great stone against the mouth of the cave. And now Ulysses and his companions found a long pole, and after sharpening the end and hardening it in the fire, they hid their new weapon in a corner of the cave and awaited the return of Polyphemus. That night, after the giant had had his usual supper, Ulysses offered him a draught of specially good wine that he had brought with him. Polyphemus was so pleased with it that he drank a large quantity, and asked for the donor's name. "My name," replied Ulysses, is "Noman." Soon after, heavy with wine, the giant sank into a deep slumber, whereupon Ulysses and his men prepared for action. Taking the pole from its hiding-place, they heated it in the fire and then plunged it red-hot into the great eye of the sleeping cyclops. Stung with pain, the giant awoke, and cried out to his brother cyclopses, "Friends! Noman is slaying me by guile." To this his comrades replied that if his affliction was caused by "no man," then it must be sent by the gods, and they could not interfere. So saying, they turned and left him.

Delighted at the success of his stratagem, Ulysses next devised a plan of escape from the cave. Polyphemus, mad with rage, had groped his way to the cave's mouth and rolled away the stone, and now sat with arms across the opening, so as to intercept anyone who might try to escape. But Ulysses was too clever for him. Knowing that the flock would be let out to pasture, he tied the sheep together in groups of three, and underneath the middle one of each group he fastened one of his men. His companions being thus provided for, Ulysses himself seized a large ram and hung on beneath it, clinging tight to the thick wool. In the early morning the herd passed out, and all were conveyed safely through the very clutches of the giant. Once outside, the wily hero dropped on his feet, loosed his men and

with them made for the ships. Then lifting up his voice he flung taunts at Polyphemus and disclosed his real name. Whereupon the furious giant, breaking off the top of a hill, hurled it into the water and nearly sank the ship.

So ended the adventure, and Ulysses, setting his face towards the grey ocean, started once more on his unknown and perilous way.

6. TWO STORIES ILLUSTRATING REASONING POWER IN ANIMALS

Outline

(1) The cat and the door-bell.
  (*a*) A cat frequents a wall along which runs a bell-wire.
  (*b*) She is found to have set the bell ringing.
  (*c*) The process of reasoning by which she contrived this.

(2) The elephant and the apple.
  (*a*) An apple thrown to the elephant falls beyond his reach.
  (*b*) His plan for its recovery.

(3) Conclusion that some reasoning power is possessed by animals.

Essay

The cat that is the subject of my story lived in a large house on the borders of a small town. Outwardly she was just like any ordinary cat, but that she was possessed of a more than common intelligence will be clear from what follows. The house had a large walled-in garden, with two gates, one leading to the front door, and one to the back. On the wall that adjoined the tradesmen's entrance was our cat's favourite retreat, for from this vantage-ground she could watch the carts coming back and forth, and sometimes purloin a bit of fish or meat, while the unsuspecting tradesman's back was turned. On cold wintry days when pussy delighted, as all cats do, to sit beside the fire and dream away the hours till night-fall, she would seek her favourite spot, should door and window be fast closed, and wait her opportunity when some friendly milk-man or baker-boy

should come and ring the door-bell. Then, upon the opening of the door, pussy would enter, tail in air, and purr in grateful anticipation of milk. But there came a day when, though the bell rang and she entered as usual, there was no tradesman or other person at the door. This happened several times, but, search as she would, Martha, the housemaid, could see no sign of the truant bell-ringer. At length it became apparent that whenever the cat desired entrance into the house, she managed by some means or other to set the bell ringing. But how? Martha determined to find out, and watching from her window she spied the cat jump on the garden wall and give the wire which ran along the wall a sharp pull with her claws. The bell rang, and pussy hastened to the door from her perch to await the desired result. For she had noticed the tweaking of the wire under her paws as she sat on the wall, and the consequent jangle of the bell, a sound which was invariably followed by the opening of the door. Hence it had occurred to her that, if she were to tweak the wire in the same way, the same effect would be produced. Thus did this clever cat find a means of gaining an independent entry into the house, even making the servants wait upon her pleasure.

A story of an elephant is another illustration of the intelligence of animals. This elephant, chained by the neck, was standing in his stall with trunk outstretched, waiting for a chance dainty from one of the many passers-by. Presently a lady came along with a little boy, who carried an apple in his hand. On seeing the elephant, he threw the apple with all his might towards it, but the apple, missing its mark, fell just out of the creature's reach. In vain the elephant tugged at his chain and thrust out his long trunk; the apple was just beyond its range. But the knowing beast was equal to the occasion. Suddenly he blew a great blast from his nostrils, and sent the apple flying against the opposite wall, whence it rebounded so as to come within his reach. Thus did the elephant's clever device obtain its well-deserved reward. Observation had apparently taught him the law of repercussion, and he had stored it up in his memory for future use.

These stories indicate that animals possess a certain amount of reasoning power. Men are apt to imagine that it is the possession of reason that makes them superior to the lower animals; whereas it is not a question of difference but of degree. A degraded and brutalised human being may even be less intelli-

gent than a well-bred dog. For there is no doubt that by continual contact with man animals can attain to no small degree of intellectual capacity.

7. A RAILWAY ACCIDENT

Outline

(1) Introduction; the train and its passengers.
(2) The accident.
  (*a*) Train diverted into a siding.
  (*b*) Collides with a station platform.
  (*c*) Catches fire.
(3) After the accident.
  (*a*) Casualties.
  (*b*) Rescue work.
  (*c*) Subscription in aid of the sufferers.

Essay

The day was calm and bright, and for some hours the train had run smoothly along with its human freight, till the passengers, roused by the thought that they were nearing their destination, began to pack away books and papers and reach down parcels from the racks.

Suddenly there was an ominous jolting of the carriages, jerking the passengers from their seats and hurling them in confused heaps to the opposite side of the compartment. Then came a desperate leap forward, and finally, a terrible shock, which splintered the carriages like match-wood. Owing to an error on the part of the signalman, the train had turned into a siding and had come into violent collision with the platform of a wayside station, ploughing up the pavement and causing considerable damage to the station buildings. The great engine lay panting on its side amid fallen beams and shattered glass, while behind it were wrecked carriages, some entirely overturned, some erect, but half-buried amid the ruins of the station premises. And then almost as soon as the train came to a standstill, the cry of "Fire!" arose. The hot cinders from the fallen locomotive had set fire to the guard's van, and heart-rending shrieks arose from the imprisoned occupants as the flames attacked carriage after carriage with merciless rapidity.

But help was at hand. A large army of rescuers was swiftly collected, bucket and hose were vigorously applied, and it was not long before the fire was extinguished. Then began the work of extricating the unfortunate passengers from the *debris*. Some were jammed between the seats of the carriages, some were crushed beneath fallen roofs; while the sudden outbreak of fire, if it put an end to the sufferings of some, no doubt included in its ravages others who had previously escaped unharmed. The work of rescue was long and tedious, and for some days it was not known exactly how many persons had been killed. Stories of heroism and pathetic tales of loss and bereavement were not wanting. A newly married couple were in the train. The husband was killed; the young wife rescued. Of a large family on their way to the sea-side, all perished in the flames, save one little boy, left orphaned at the age of eight. Similar cases were only too numerous, and a great wave of sympathy for the sufferers swept over the country, and large subscriptions were raised for the many widows and orphaned children. But it was long before the memory of that disastrous collision faded from the minds of those who had known its terrible details.

8. THE STORY OF WILLIAM TELL

Outline.

(1) Tell's date and nationality; the state of the country.

(2) The story.
- (*a*) Tell's defiance of the edict.
- (*b*) His punishment.
- (*c*) His escape and revenge.

(3) Conclusion.
- (*a*) Uncertainty of the truth of the story.
- (*b*) Memorials of Tell.

Essay

William Tell, the great Swiss hero so much renowned in prose and verse, lived during the end of the thirteenth and the first half of the fourteenth century. At this time Albert I. of Austria was striving by every means in his power to crush the

spirit of independence in Switzerland. Into the three cantons nearest his own dominions he sent bailiffs, who perpetrated the most flagrant acts of tyranny, and treated the people like a conquered nation. A small group of patriots, amongst whom was William Tell, determined to resist the foreign invader, and as far as possible by peaceful methods to protect the interests of their country.

One day the bailiff of Uri whose name was Gessler, in order to force home his authority over the wronged and insulted Swiss, caused a pole to be set up in the market-place of Altorf, bearing the ducal hat of Austria. At the same time he issued a proclamation commanding everyone who passed the hat to uncover his head as a token of respect for the Austrian sovereignty. Now it happened that while Gessler's servants were strictly enforcing the observance of this edict, they saw Tell pass through the market-place with an unconcerned air, leading by the hand his little son, a boy about eight, and paying no attention whatever to the pole with its emblem of tyranny.

Enraged at Tell's proud indifference, the attendants immediately seized him and brought him before Gessler for sentence, Gessler, who had heard of Tell's skill in archery, devised a punishment by which to satisfy both his curiosity and his revenge. He ordered an apple to be placed on the head of Tell's little son, and stationing his prisoner at a considerable distance, he bade him shoot at the apple. Tell took his aim with calm deliberation, swiftly sped the arrow, and the apple fell in two halves at the child's feet. With true eye and steady hand Tell had split the apple through the centre without harming a hair of his son's head. As the archer turned to Gessler with a smile of proud defiance, the bailiff observed that he had a second arrow. Impressed by the man's marvellous skill, yet annoyed at the failure of his plan of vengeance and at Tell's haughty demeanour, Gessler demanded fiercely the purpose of the second arrow. "That" replied Tell, "was intended for thee, if the first had hit my child." Enraged, the Austrian ordered Tell to be seized and bound and conveyed across the lake to a stronghold in which he was to be immured, Gessler himself accompanying his prisoner.

On the way so violent a storm arose that the boat was in danger of sinking. Tell was loosed in order to act as helmsman, for he was known to be an experienced boatman and well acquainted with every part of the lake. Taking the rudder in his hand

he steered the craft towards a shelf of rock jutting out into the water, upon reaching which he leaped ashore, at the same time pushing off the boat with his foot. That night he lay in wait for Gessler on a hill-side pathway leading to the castle of Kusnacht and, as the tyrant passed homewards, the second arrow found its mark.

The story of William Tell has been told and retold many times, and has doubtless gathered around it much matter that is merely legendary. Historians are not agreed as to its truth, and it is thought by some to be entirely fictitious. Three chapels have been erected to his memory in different parts of Switzerland, and many travellers visit the spot on Lake Uri where he is said to have jumped ashore. If in some respects his actions were open to blame, there is something about his fearless independence of spirit and courageous defiance of tyranny that catches the imagination, and he is likely still to figure in story as a typical hero and champion of liberty.

9. THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

Outline

(1) Introduction; date and place.
(2) Features of battle-field.
(3) Cavalry charges.
(4) Repulse of Imperial Guard; arrival of Blucher; defeat of the French.
(5) Result.

Essay

Napoleon after his escape from Elba determined to win back what he had lost. Thousands flocked to his standard, and once again Europe was plunged into war. He defeated Blucher, the Prussian general, at Ligny, attacking Quatre Bras at the same time so as to occupy the English. Upon Blucher's defeat, Wellington, who commanded the allies, was himself obliged to retreat, and fell back on Waterloo. Here on June 18th, 1815 the great battle began.

Wellington's forces were not so numerous as Napoleon's, and he had considerably fewer guns. Between the two armies was a slight valley along which a country road ran, and on the left of the British lay the farm house of La Haye Sainte, and on the

right that of Hougoumont. These two positions were of great importance to either side and their possession was fiercely contested. Though the attacks of the French finally resulted in the burning of Hougoumont, they were unable to capture it.

Napoleon tried to make an advance by means of his cavalry under Ney, but the British infantry formed into squares, with fixed bayonets, and discharging a volley as the enemy approached repulsed them time after time.

Thus he sacrificed a fine body of cavalry without accomplishing a single result. Wellington also has been accused of sacrificing his cavalry, but his losses compared with those of Napoleon were small.

Meanwhile attack after attack of the French had failed, and there only remained the Imperial Guard, a magnificent body of soldiers. These drew up in column, and advanced steadily up the British slope. The guns made havoc in their ranks, but never pausing they came on. Wellington had strengthened his defences to meet this attack, and Napoleon anxiously watched their advance. His empire hung upon its success. A large regiment of British infantry now formed up on the flank of the French Guard and parallel to it and from these close quarters poured in a withering volley, following it up with a furious charge. Napoleon's far-famed Guards, the victors in a hundred fights, swayed unsteadily for a moment and then were swept down the hill. The Prussians under Blucher now came up, Wellington ordered a general advance, and Napoleon, seeing that all was lost, hurried from the field.

Waterloo for the French was not so much a defeat as a rout. Napoleon's army ceased to exist. The slaughter on both sides was terrible, the loss of the British, who bore the brunt of the battle, being nearly 7,000 killed and wounded.

10. A FIRE

Outline

(1) In an American theatre.

(2) Panic among the audience; allayed by the coolness of the stage-manager.

(3) Orderly exit of audience.

(4) Excitement outside; efforts of fire-men almost useless through the wind.
(5) Splendid spectacle.
(6) Crush in the crowd from the great heat.
(7) Fire gradually subsides.
(8) Considerable damage, but no lives lost; stage-manager rewarded for his coolness and foresight.

Essay

Some years ago a terrible fire broke out in a huge theatre in one of the southern states of America.

A crowded audience had gathered to witness the evening performance of a play which was very popular at the time. The first act was not far advanced, and the latest comers had but just settled themselves in their places, when a sudden shout of "Fire!" was raised, and a burst of flame issued from the stage. The cry was taken up on all sides and a great confusion ensued. A panic spread through the audience; there was a general rush for the doors; women fainted, and men, losing their self-control in the first impulse of fear, began to fight their way through the crowd. Suddenly a voice was heard clear and strong above the tumult: "Calm yourselves, ladies and gentlemen, there is no immediate danger." The distinct, imperative tones arrested the outward rush of the people and brought them in a moment to their senses; the stampede ceased, and all turned to look at the speaker.

It was the stage-manager who had spoken. Having hastily let down the curtain, he had advanced to the edge of the platform, and now stood facing the audience. His calm and collected bearing inspired the terrified people with courage. His clearly given commands were instinctively obeyed; order replaced the former confusion, and the people passed out of the building in a swift but steady stream. The stage-manager himself was the last to leave the theatre, and that only just in time, for it was full of smoke, and as he looked back he saw the stage enveloped in flame.

Outside there was intense excitement. A vast crowd had collected, while several fire-engines were dashing to the scene of action. Happily no one was left inside to need rescue, and the firemen devoted their energy to extinguishing the flames, and, mounting on ladders, worked their hose with the greatest vigour

But a strong wind was blowing, the fire increased in spite of their efforts, and finally they concentrated their attention on saving the neighbouring buildings.

The conflagration was now a splendid sight to behold. Flames shot out of the highest gallery windows and the whole theatre presented the appearance of being brilliantly illuminated. Great columns of smoke arose, but these were rapidly blown away so that they did not impair the grandeur of the spectacle. At last the fire reached the roof; there was a sudden blaze; and far up into the sky leapt a great flame lighting up the faces of the watching crowd.

By this time the heat had become so intense that the foremost among the mass of people were forced to fall back, and the crush was so great that some of the women fainted and were with difficulty extricated from the throng. In a short time however, the flames began to die down. The roof fell in with a loud crash, and only the walls glowing red hot remained standing.

Once more the firemen turned their hose on the ruined building. Now and again there was a fresh outburst of flame, but the greatest danger was over, and although the firemen were kept busy all night, they knew that they should be able to master the smouldering embers of the conflagration.

Thus the great fire ended with less damage than might have been expected. For though the monetary loss was considerable, and though several people suffered from the shock and the crush both within the theatre and outside, not a single life was lost. The stage-manager who had acted with such coolness and forethought was presented with a public testimonial, but was better rewarded by the gratitude of the whole community.

11. QUEEN PHILLIPPA AND THE BURGHERS OF CALAIS

Outline

1 Queen Philippa.
2 Siege of Calais.
   (*a*) Date and circumstances.
   (*b*) Heroic resistance.
   (*c*) Capitulation.

3. Edward demands burghers as scapegoats.
   (*a*) They are condemned to death,
   (*b*) The Queen's intercession ; their release.
4. Conclusion.

Essay

Philippa of Hainault, wife of Edward III. of England, is one of the great women of the Middle Ages. She stands out from among other English queens of that time, remarkable for her piety and generosity, her wisdom and humanity, and the power for good which she exercised over her impetuous and warlike husband. She took an active part in the affairs of the nation and frequently accompanied Edward on his campaigns.

In the year 1346 Edward III, having gained the eventful victory of Crecy marched to the siege of Calais, a coast town which would be of great service to England for future incursions into France. The French king, fearing to risk another battle in an attempt to relieve the city, abandoned Calais to the miseries of a long and arduous siege. Within the town famine and disease did their work. Month after month dragged by, and still Calais held out grimly, the starving, hollow-eyed citizens asking each other when the end would be. At length in August 1347, when the siege had lasted a year, the citizens, despairing of succour, sent messengers to ask for terms of surrender.

Edward was by nature hot-tempered, and since he had lost many of his men through privation and disease, it was not to be expected that he would lightly forgive the men of Calais. Less cruel than many of the kings of those days, he extended mercy to the garrison and the townspeople on condition that six of the burghers were delivered up to him, on whom to wreak his vengeance. When these terms were promulgated in the city, the starving people who had looked for better news, wept and lamented in the streets. But Eustace de St. Pierre, the wealthiest burgher of the town, stood up and addressed the crowd. "If," he said, "I can save this town by my death, I will readily place myself in the hands of English Edward." Stirred by his generosity, five others of the most noted citizens also offered themselves. Clad in sackcloth, with halters round their necks, the six devoted burghers left the city amid the tears and prayers of the people.

Great was the stir and excitement in the English army when it was known that Calais had at length surrendered, and there

was much crowding and pressing to see the six burghers pay the penalty. Edward III. with Queen Philippa and his train of knights and barons stood ready to pronounce judgment. The six burghers in their mean attire fell down before the king and delivered to him the keys of Calais, begging him to have mercy upon them. While many in the crowd wept for pity, Edward in anger ordered their instant execution. His knights and lords prayed him for the sake of his honour and fair renown to spare these generous-hearted men. But the king was firm, and bid call the headsmen. Then Queen Philippa rose, and humbling herself at his feet, begged with tears that for her sake he would let the men go free. The king heard her in silence and at length spoke. "Lady, I had rather you had asked anything else, but I cannot refuse your entreaties. Take them, I give them to you." So saying, he took the six burghers by their halters and delivered them to the queen. Thereupon the queen gave orders to clothe the six burghers and feast them honourably, and rejoiced much that she had saved the lives of such brave men.

The story of Queen Philippa and the burghers of Calais, simple yet dramatic, is a favourite theme not only with historians but with artists and poets from that time to the present. The angry king, the pathetic figures of the heroic burghers, the noble and compassionate queen interceding for their lives, make up a picture which, though belonging to a time so distant, appeals in its simple human pathos to all ages.

12. TWO ANECDOTES OF GREAT MEN

Outline

(1) Nelson at the Battle of the Baltic.
  (*a*) Description of the battle.
  (*b*) The signal for retreat.
  (*c*) How Nelson ignored the signal.
(2) Sir Isaac Newton and the egg.
  (*a*) He boils his watch in place of the egg.
  (*b*) Remarks on the absent-mindedness of great men.

Essay

An anecdote is related of Lord Nelson at the Battle of the Baltic which well illustrates both his courage and his tenacity of

purpose. The Battle of the Baltic, or, as it is sometimes called the Battle of Copenhagen, was one of Nelson's three great victories; yet here, although he was the leading spirit, he was not commander-in-chief. The official head of the expedition was Sir Hyde Parker, a man of prudent and cautious disposition, whose hesitation and unnecessary delays sorely chafed the adventurous spirit of Nelson. At length the ships were in battle line, the command of the attack being given to Nelson, while Sir Hyde Parker remained in the background with a reserve force. The engagement was long and deadly, the firing on both sides being terrific, and the carnage greater even than at the Battle of the Nile. The Danes, fighting in full view of the eager citizens of Copenhagen, were desperately determined, and fought with a courage and obstinacy which would have secured success against a foe with less resolution than him whom they had to face. For Nelson was equally determined upon conquering the brave Danes, and felt sure of ultimate success.

But just when the action was at its most critical point, Sir Hyde Parker, fearing that the enemy's fire was too hot for Nelson, hoisted the signal for retreat.

The signal lieutenant of Nelson's ship, the *Elephant*, reported the matter to him, and asked if he should reply in the affirmative. Nelson, who felt that it would be folly to stop now, just when victory was in sight, demanded to see the signal for himself, and, applying the telescope to his blind eye, exclaimed, "I really do not see the signal! Keep my signal for close action flying," he added, and turning to his captain, he said "You know, Foley, I've only one eye; I've a right to be blind sometimes." Thus did Nelson take upon himself the whole responsibility for the battle, and the result fully justified his confident disregard of the admiral's orders.

A striking example of the absent-mindedness of genius is found in a story told of Sir Isaac Newton. Desiring one evening to boil an egg for his supper, the great scientist took out his watch to keep the time, and approached the fire with his watch in one hand and the egg in the other. His thoughts no doubt were busy with other and graver matters, for, instead of placing the egg in the saucepan of boiling water, he solemnly dropped his watch into it and stood gazing blankly at the egg in his hand.

History does not relate how long he left his watch to cook or what happened when he discovered his mistake, but the story shews how absent-minded and impractical great men, and

especially great scientists, often are. They live in a world of their own and are often almost unconscious of everyday practical affairs. It is claimed as a privilege of genius to be exempt from material concerns, but this does not always conduce either to their own comfort or to that of those around them.

13. SIR HENRY LAWRENCE

Outline

(1) Birth, parentage, and education.
(2) First Burmese War.
(3) First Afghan War; the Lawrence Asylums.
(4) The two Sikh Wars; administrative work at Lahore.
(5) Agent in Rajputana.
(6) Chief Commissioner of Oudh; defence of the Residency. Lucknow.
(7) Death; greatness.

Essay

Sir Henry Lawrence was borne in Ceylon in 1806. There is no doubt that he inherited from his parents many of the qualities which distinguished him both as a soldier and an administrator. For his mother was a collateral descendant of John Knox and his father had won distinction in Wellington's campaign against Seringapatam in 1799. Henry was educated, first at a Protestant College in Ireland, and afterwards at a Military College, and joined the Bengal Artillery in the service of the East India Company at the early age of sixteen.

He was soon recognised by his superiors as an able and intelligent officer, and took an active part in the first Burmese War of 1828. During that campaign he contracted a fever from the effects of which he never wholly recovered; but after spending only a few months in England, he returned to India, and was appointed revenue surveyor. In this capacity he spent nine years of hard work, winning the affection and esteem of all with whom he came in contact.

He went on active service again in the first Afghan War, 1838-42, in which he distinguished himself not only by his military ability, but also by his extraordinary influence over the somewhat unruly Sikh troops who took part in the campaign. He was in consequence made assistant to the British envoy at

Lahore, where he continued to develope that knowledge of the Sikh character which made him so invaluable to the Government of India in the subsequent troubles in the Punjab, 1845-1853. Meanwhile he spent a year as British Resident in Nepal; and as the duties of his position were not onerous, he occupied himself with literature and good works. He wrote a book, "The Adventures of an Officer in the Service of Ranjit Singh," and contributed several articles to *The Calcutta Review*. He also founded three orphan asylums for the children of British soldiers in India, and thenceforth devoted most of his income to their maintenance.

His services in the two Sikh wars of 1845 and 1848; his gallant though futile effort to restore order as British Resident at Lahore after the first war; and his splendid work in the pacification of the district, as President of the Board of Administration at Lahore, after the second war, are well known.

During another period of rest as Governor-General's Agent in Rajputana in 1856, Lawrence wrote his two articles on army reform that contained those serious warnings of the disturbed state of the country, which were so soon to be justified by the outbreak of the Mutiny.

His warnings passed unheeded. In May, 1857 he was made Chief Commissioner of Oudh, and did all that one man could do to stem the tide of disaffection and to prepare for the worst. It was his wisdom and foresight alone that made it possible for the small company of British soldiers to hold the Residency at Lucknow for four Months against the rebels who were in possession of the town. Regarded by the authorities as "a tower of strength," he was made provisional Governor General of India, but all efforts were now unavailing, and the tide of rebellion swept on.

He himself fell a victim to it during the first month of the siege of Lucknow, and we may recognise a last tribute to his greatness in the fortitude with which the English soldiers continued the defence though their leader was taken from them. A marble statue has been erected to his memory in St. Paul's Cathedral.

14. A MOUNTAIN CLIMB

Outline

(1) The start; sights on the road.
(2) The wayside hut.
(3) The view from the summit.

Essay

From a little village on the shores of lake Lucerne, we started one morning to climb the green mountain slope which rose protectingly above us to the south west. We started early so as to finish the ascent before the full heat of the day. During the first part of our journey we passed many wooden chalets among the meadows, with cows browsing lazily to the sound of their tinkling bells, and rosy children who shyly offered us bunches of flowers. But soon the path became steeper, and the only living things about us were the goats that clambered so nimbly and surely amongst the scattered boulders, and the goat-herds for the most part occupied in sleeping under the shade of a rock.

After struggling slowly up a steep and stony path, how delightful it was to see a hut beside it where we could rest and drink some goats' milk. A miserable-looking place it was, very different from the picturesque chalets of the lower slopes, but quite in keeping with the bleak, wind-swept aspect of the locality. The man and woman who lived in it were as rough-looking as their surroundings, but their looks did not do them justice, for they were very friendly and hospitable. When we arrived, the old woman was baking in a very primitive oven made of flat stones, picked up no doubt on the mountain side and surrounded with hot coals. We were so much interested in all we saw, and the old woman was so evidently pleased with having visitors to her lonely dwelling, that we stayed longer than we had intended, and finished our climb in the heat of the day after all.

Now we began to pass through belts of low-lying cloud, which blotted out our path from before us, and enveloped us in cold, wet mist. Thus through alternate stages of damp cold and blazing heat we arrived at the top. The side of the mountain that faced the village was a gentle slope, but the side next the lake was a precipice so sheer, that strong railings guarded it at the top, and leaning over them we could look straight down into the lake below. The view was very wonderful. Across the water we could see a glorious panorama of snow-clad peaks and rugged glaciers; above, the intense blue of the sky, and below, caught in glimpses through the shifting whiteness of the clouds, the still intenser blue of the lake.

15. AN ADVENTURE WITH A TIGER

Outline

(1) Preparations for a tiger-hunt.
(2) A scene of excitement.
(3) Sudden charge of a tiger, which though wounded, springs on leading elephant. Elephant shakes off tiger and its rider, Lang, on the top of it.
(4) Flight of Lang to nearest tree. Tiger disappears. Arrival of the other hunters; their dismay at Lang's blood-stained condition; which is explained.
(5) The return to camp; conclusion.

Essay

Great was the excitement in Rampur when the news was brought in that a tiger's footprints had been discovered on a patch of sand in the neighbouring jungle. Word went round that elephants and rifles and all the paraphernalia of a tiger-hunt were to be got ready at once.

All the leading inhabitants of the district came out to join in the sport, and it was a fine sight to see natives hurrying hither and thither, elephants waiting for their riders, and the general air of activity that pervaded both men and animals.

Among the foremost to plunge into the jungle was Captain Lang of the Ninth Lancers, who sat in his howdah with his rifle ready, keeping a sharp look out ahead. The tiger's trail had soon been found, but the day wore on, large tracts of jungle were beaten, but still no tiger.

Suddenly, there was a loud roar, a waving and a rustling of the jungle grass, and a huge tiger appeared, and immediately charged the leading elephant. Several shots rang out, but failed to turn the beast, rendered still more savage by his wounds. With a tremendous spring he landed on the head of Captain Lang's elephant, transfixing it with his sharp claws. The tortured elephant paused a moment with back-curled trunk, and then shook himself violently to rid himself of his unwelcome visitor. The process was only too effective, for not only was the tiger shaken to the ground, but Captain Lang was shaken out of the howdah on the top of him. To spring up and away from such a dangerous neighbourhood was the work of a moment, and

the gallant captain made with all speed for the nearest tree, which he climbed as he had never climbed before. But the tiger was apparently as much surprised as Captain Lang at what had happened, and without showing more fight, slunk off into the thickest recesses of the jungle.

The other elephants with their riders now came up, and great was the consternation among them to see how our captain, who had come down from the tree, was besmeared with blood in all parts of his person. But their fears were soon set at rest; the blood was not his own, but the tiger's.

It was then too late to pursue the hunt further, and the whole party returned to camp, to enjoy a good dinner after the day's excitement and to hear Captain Lang recount his sensations when he found himself sprawling on the body of the prostrate tiger.

16. SHERIDAN

Outline

(1) Birth, parentage, and school-life.
(2) Marriage, and life in London.
(3) Three great comedies.
(4) Political career.
(5) Death.

Essay

Richard Brinsley Sheridan, born at Dublin in 1751, came of a family already distinguished in letters. His father, his father's father, and his mother were all people of some note in the literary circles of their day. Richard himself has the reputation of having been backward in his school-days, but there seems to be no evidence for this beyond a phrase—" an impenetrable dunce "— which his mother uses about him in her letter to the headmaster of Harrow, on the occasion of her entering him at the school at the age of seven!

On leaving Harrow, he went to live with his parents at Bath, and soon gave the gossips there plenty to talk about by his elopement with a young lady of sixteen, who on account of her beauty and accomplishments was known as " the Maid of Bath." After his marriage, he and his wife settled in London, and lived

in such grand style that his friends expostulated with him, and asked how he could find the means to keep up such an establishment. To which he replied, " My dear friend, it *is* my means ;" and there is no doubt that his social standing and popularity contributed largely to the financial success of his plays.

At the age of twenty-four he brought out his great comedy, *The Rivals*, and shortly afterwards a farce entitled *St. Patrick's Day*. In 1777, when he was only twenty-six, he produced his masterpiece, *The School for Scandal*, and two years later, *The Critic*. He was still therefore quite a young man, and we cannot tell what he might not have attained, had he pursued the vocation of literature ; but at this juncture he turned aside into the thornier road of politics.

Sheridan first entered Parliament in 1780, at the instance of Charles James Fox, with whom he had formed a strong friendship, and to whom he remained faithful through all the vicissitudes of the unsettled politics of the time. He held one or two offices under Government, but his career as a Member of the House was not remarkable, except for one or two brilliant speeches, notably his impeachment of Warren Hastings, which will always remain a monument of Parliamentary oratory.

His later years were clouded by debts and difficulties. Neglected by his friends, he died in reduced circumstances on July 7, 1816, at the age of sixty-four.

17. THE BATTLE OF ASSAYE

Outline

(1) Date ; fought between the English and the Mahratta chiefs.
(2) Events that led up to it.
    (*a*) Defeat of the Peshwa of Poona.
    (*b*) His appeal to the British.
    (*c*) Confederation of remaining chiefs.
(3) The campaign.
    (*a*) Wellesley's advance.
    (*b*) Numbers on both sides.
    (*c*) Capture of a position.
(4) The battle.
    (*a*) Losses of the enemy.
    (*b*) Result.

Essay

This battle was fought on September, 23rd, 1803, between the English under Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington) and the confederate Mahratta chiefs headed by Sindhia of Gwalior. It resulted in a decisive victory for the British arms.

The events which led up to the war were these. The five Mahratta chiefs had been nominal, but very doubtful, friends of the British. They were always fighting amongst themselves for supremacy, and as a result of one of these quarrels, the Peshwa was driven from his capital and appealed to the British for assistance. He signed a treaty ceding various rights over the Mahratta territories in return for being reinstated. The other chiefs, alarmed for their independence, united against the British, and were led by Sindhia, the boldest and ablest among them, whose large army was trained and commanded by French officers.

Wellesley restored the Peshwa to Poona, reduced the fort of Ahmednuggar, and then advanced inland in search of Sindhia's main army. He unexpectedly came up with it at the end of a long day's march, and found it entrenched in a very strong position. His own army consisted of seven thousand men, of whom only fifteen hundred were Europeans, and they had seventeen guns in all. Opposed to him was a force of fifty thousand men, with a hundred and twenty-eight guns. In spite of the enormous odds, Wellesley determined to give battle at once. In order to gain a stronger position he had to cross a river which all his guides assured him was impassable. But by the exercise of that "saving common sense" which Tennyson reminds us he was "rich in," he decided that it could be done, because, as he told a friend in after years, he saw two villages immediately facing each other on opposite sides of the river, and rightly concluded that they must have some means of communication.

Wellesley himself described the battle as the bloodiest and hardest fought that he had ever seen. He had two horses shot under him, and lost nearly one third of his forces, but he remained victor of the field, on which the enemy left six thousand of their men and most of their guns. This victory practically decided the campaign, and marked out Wellesley as a man destined to the highest distinction in the career of arms.

18. AN ADVENTURE WITH A COBRA

Outline

(1) Time and place of the occurrence.
(2) The hero goes to bed; noises in the night; rats in the roof.
(3) He is waked by a rustling; procures a light and finds a cobra; his lamp goes out.
(4) His predicament; opportune arrival of his servant; the snake killed.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Arthur White sat in his bungalow in India one evening thinking over his day's work. He had had a hard day, and as he intended to be up betimes the next morning, he determined to go to rest early.

Accordingly, not long after, he was comfortably ensconced in bed and was soon dozing, when a queer noise caught his ear and woke him up. At first it sounded like a faint scratching, which appeared to come from the thatched roof over his head. Then the sound was repeated, and presently developed into the scampering of many small feet which he knew to be those of rats, and he could see the cotton sheet that served as ceiling undulating beneath their tread. Then he remembered that at one end there was a small slit in that cotton sheet. And then the noise ceased altogether and he fell sound asleep.

Suddenly he awoke with a start. Listening intently, he could hear a soft rustling as of an animal gently moving in one corner of the room. The room itself was pitch-dark, but he knew that there was a light in the adjoining bathroom; and noiselessly stealing thither with unslippered feet, he came back with the little oil-lamp in his hand. Then slowly and with great caution he advanced towards the spot whence the sound had come, and this was what he saw in the dim light—a huge cobra, with hood wide expanded and flickering tongue, rearing itself as ready to strike! Horror-struck at the sight, he sprang back, and the sudden movement extinguished his lamp. He was face to face with a cobra in the dark!

Thought after thought chased themselves through his brain. He must get out of the room somehow. But the door to safety

was near the place where he had seen the creature. Yes, but there was the bath-room door. That would take him, beyond, into the open air where on the garden path there might be more cobras waiting for him, barefooted as he was. Still, this seemed his best chance of escape, when, as he hesitated, to his intense relief, the door, which led into the verandah opened, and his servant appeared with a light. He had heard the noise and had come to see what was the matter. To warn the man and bid him fetch a loaded gun was the work of an instant; and presently White had the satisfaction of seeing the huge snake dead at his feet.

He has since had it stuffed and put in a glass case, where it is a continual reminder of his Adventure with a Cobra.

19. NELSON

Outline

(1) Birth and early life.
(2) Enters the Navy; service in the West Indies.
(3) Service in the Mediterranean; Battle of Cape St. Vincent.
(4) Battle of the Nile.
(5) Life at Naples.
(6) Battles of the Baltic and Trafalgar; death.

Essay.

Horatio Nelson was born on September 29, 1758, at Burnham Thorpe, a village in Norfolk of which his father was rector. He entered the Navy at the age of twelve, under the care of his uncle, Captain Suckling, with whom he went a voyage to the West Indies. His youthful experience of the sea was very varied; for, besides making this voyage, he had served in an Arctic expedition and spent two years in the East Indies before he was eighteen years old.

His mother's family was connected with the Walpoles, and by their influence he obtained a command as lieutenant, immediately after passing his naval officer's examination in 1777; but his subsequent rapid promotion was due to his own extraordinary ability. At the age of twenty-two he was placed in command of an expedition against San Juan, and for the next few years he

remained on active service in the West Indies. While there, he formed a life-long friendship with Prince William, afterwards William IV, and married the widowed niece of the President of Nevis, one of the West India Islands.

On the outbreak of the war with France in 1793 he accompanied Lord Hood to the Mediterranean, and was engaged for many years in a series of minor operations, in one of which he lost his right eye, and in another his right arm. The only important battle during this period was the battle of Cape St. Vincent in 1797, in which Nelson greatly distinguished himself both by his strategy and by his personal courage.

In 1798 he was appointed to the command of a squadron in the Mediterranean with orders to watch Napoleon's movements. Napoleon was at this time contemplating an attack upon Egypt, but kept his plans so secret that Nelson lost sight of his fleet twice. Eventually, however, he came up with it lying in Aboukir Bay, and in the Battle of the Nile by a brilliant manœuvre practically annihilated it.

This splendid victory brought him many rewards: a peerage and a pension of £2,000 from his own country; a title, Duke of Bronte, and an estate from the King of Naples; and large presents from Turkey and Russia, who were rejoiced at being delivered from the overshadowing dread of Napoleon.

For the next few years Nelson remained at Naples superintending the affairs of the little kingdom, and while there formed that fatal attachment to Lady Hamilton, the wife of the English Ambassador, which lasted for the rest of his life.

After taking part in an expedition against Copenhagen, and spending some months in strengthening the coast defences of England against the expected attacks of Napoleon, Nelson returned to the Mediterranean, and on October 21st, 1805, at Trafalgar won his last fight, in which he lost his life. He was shot early in the engagement, but lived long enough to learn that victory was secure. It was before this battle that he hoisted his famous signal, "England expects every man to do his duty," and this signal may truly be said to sum up his own life history. His one thought was for his country, his one desire to serve her, and he died with the words "Thank God, I have done my duty" on his lips.

20. THE EMPEROR AND POET

Outline

(1) Introduction; the Emperor Augustus's good humour.
(2) A poor poet tries to win the Emperor's patronage by presenting him with complimentary epigrams.
(3) To stop the nuisance, Augustus writes an epigram of his own on the poet's tablet. Pretended delight of the poet, who hands the Emperor a gratuity. Charmed with the man's wit, Augustus makes him a handsome present.

Essay

Perhaps the most agreeable feature in the character of the Emperor Augustus was the good-humoured cheerfulness which showed itself, among other things, in the pleasure he took in playing with children and in his affectionate intercourse with his family connexions. Fond of wit and repartee, he could enjoy a joke, even if it were against himself.

At one time, in the exercise of his State functions, he was accustomed to pass daily between his house and the Forum. Like the Roman nobles of that day, he was borne in a litter and accompanied by a large retinue. A poor Greek poet, in want of patronage, noticed these regular journeys of the great Emperor, and took the opportunity of soliciting his favour with complimentary epigrams, which day after day he endeavoured to thrust into the great man's hands. For a while Augustus took no notice of the writing-tablet presented to him with such indomitable perseverance, but at last, growing weary of the poet's importunity, he determined to put a stop to the nuisance.

Accordingly, one day, as he was taking his usual journey, he snatched the tablet from the man and hastily scribbling upon it an epigram of his own, handed it back to him with a smile. But our poet was equal to the situation. He read the epigram with an affectation of the greatest delight and admiration, and, as the Emperor was moving on, ran up to his sedan, and with gestures of pleasure and gratitude, handed him a few pence, crying out, "By the heaven above you, Augustus, if I had had more, I would have given it you!" This outburst was greeted with a chorus of merriment from the imperial attendance and the bystanders, Augustus, far from being offended, laughed heartily at the man's ingenious retort, and was so pleased at his cleverness that he ordered his steward to present the poet with a substantial sum of money.

II DESCRIPTIVE ESSAYS

21. A SNOW MOUNTAIN

Outline

(1) General description.
(2) Different aspects, as affected by—
  (*a*) Point of view.
  (*b*) Distance.
  (*c*) Weather.
(3) Seen below the snow line.
  (*a*) Forest.
  (*b*) Flowers.
(4) Seen above the snow line.
  (*a*) Rocks.
  (*b*) Glaciers.
  (*c*) Snow plant.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

There is no grander or more inspiring sight in nature than a lofty mountain, its crest crowned with eternal snow, its sides wreathed with fleecy clouds, its base rising from green and smiling valleys.

Its aspect changes with every change of view, of distance, and of weather. As we walk along the valleys that lie round it, or begin to climb its sides, every moment its aspect alters, as some new feature of it appears. And how our distance from it varies its effect! From far away it seems, as it were, a shining peak of salt, high against the blue of heaven; as we come nearer, the picture grows more detailed, snowy ridges appear and mighty glaciers; till, close at hand, we mark its endless variety of form, its glittering pinnacles, its jagged, menacing edges, its smooth, rounded shoulders of rock, and its broad sloping fields of snow. Then again, how gloomy and threatening it looks, blackened with storm clouds; how peaceful and inviting in the sunshine; how inexpressibly beautiful, tinged with the delicate pink of dawn or the redder glow of sunset!

Below the snow line the mountain is clothed with forests of fir trees, and flowers bloom in abundance in the open spaces, making them glorious with scent and colour. The conditions are favourable for their growth: the air is pure and clear, the sun brilliant, and the ground kept moist by the continual melting of the snow above them. Thus the lower parts of the mountain form a great contrast, in their wealth of vegetation in summer, to the bare snows above.

But there also we find beauty of form and colour. Amongst the highest peaks the snow does not lie on the vertical sides of the rocks, and these are often very beautiful, especially in the Andes, among which the heights are formed of columns of red porphyry. In the glaciers that lie between the ridges, are found huge caverns and crevasses, where the ice shines blue and green in the dim light. The glaciers themselves are sometimes smooth like a broad plain, sometimes rough as if the sea had been suddenly frozen on a wild stormy day. Then too there grows up in some places amid the snow a little red plant, which spreads itself over considerable areas, and looks like red snow, which indeed the peasants believe it to be.

Since snow mountains possess such an endless variety of beauty and charm, we cannot wonder that those who dwell among them are often heart-broken when they leave them; and that those who have learnt to love them, return again and again, drawn to them by their resistless fascination—the wonder and the grandeur of them, which makes them hardly seem like things of earth.

22. PERU

Outline

(1) Situation, extent, and government.
(2) Physical features.
  (*a*) The coast district.
  (*b*) The Sierra.
  (*c*) The Montana.
(3) Political geography.
  (*a*) Towns.
  (*b*) Railways.
  (*c*) Products.

(4) Inhabitants.
  (*a*) Incas.
  (*b*) Spaniards.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Peru lies on the west coast of south America between Ecuador and Chili, with Brazil and Bolivia to the east. The extent of its territory has varied considerably at different periods of its history; it now covers about 400,000 square miles, with nearly 1,000 miles of coast line. Its form of government is Republican, with a Senate, a Chamber of Deputies, and a President.

The surface of the country is divided into three clearly marked regions, differing greatly in their character. Between the sea and the western slopes of the mountains, lies the *coast* district, which is composed of sandy desert, except where it is crossed by short rivers, of which there are about fifty. The valleys of these streams are extremely fertile, and present a wonderful contrast to the surrounding desolation. Then comes the *Sierra*, the table-lands and valleys lying amid the triple chain of the Andes, abounding in minerals, plants, and animals, which form the chief source of the country's wealth. Finally, inland lies the basin of tributaries of the Amazon, called the *Montana*, which consists for the most part of vast and only partially explored tropical forests.

With the exception of a few ports, all the chief towns of Peru are in the Sierra. Of the ports, Lima, the capital of Peru, has a population of about 200,000 and a very flourishing trade. There are several small railways down the fertile coast valleys to convey the produce of the Sierra to the sea ports, and two railways from the coast into the interior across the mountain ranges, both engineering feats of no small difficulty. The chief products of the country are silver, which is found along the whole length of the mountains; guano, a valuable manure; wool, especially that of the alpaca, of which large herds are kept all over the Sierra; cotton and sugar, which are grown in large quantities in the coast valleys.

The original inhabitants were the Incas, a tribe of Indians that was very superior in intelligence to those of the surrounding countries, and whose customs and accomplishments at the time of their conquest by the Spaniards shewed that they had then

attained a high state of civilisation. After their conquest in the 16th century, the country was largely colonised by Spaniards, but the Incas still form more than half of the population.

This fascinating country, possessing every variety of climate and scenery—the Sierra filled with remains of the imposing temples, aqueducts, and palaces of the Incas, the inland forests rich with rare plants and flowers, and innumerable strange birds and beasts—has always been and will always be the delight and wonder of the traveller and the explorer.

23. THE ALLIGATOR

Outline

(1) Description.
(2) Habitat.
(3) Characteristics.
  (*a*) They prefer swamps.
  (*b*) Are active at night.
  (*c*) Live on fish.
  (*d*) Bury large animals.
  (*e*) Their noise.
(4) The pike-headed alligator.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

The alligator, like the crocodile, has a large flat head, a lizzrd-like body with the back covered with horny plates, short limbs, and a long and powerful tail. It is more or less web-footed, and three of the toes on each foot are furnished with strong, sharp claws. It belongs to a sub-genus of the crocodile order.

The alligator proper is found only in America: the pike-headed alligator abounds in the south east of the United States, especially in the lagoons and swamps of the Mississippi; the caiman inhabits the tropical regions of South America, being known as the "jacare" in Brazil. The magar and the garial are the members of the crocodile family that are found in India.

They all prefer swamps and stagnant pools to running water, and spend the hottest part of the day lying on the mud banks in.

the sun. Most of the day however they remain in the water, looking like floating logs, ready to snap up anything that comes in their way. It is at night that they become active and search for fish, which forms their principal diet. Beneath the mouth they have two small glands, opening outwards, which secrete a musky substance. It is suggested that they eject this into the water to attract the fish, but nothing is definitely known about it. When the fiercer species succeed in catching any land animal too large to swallow at a mouthful, they hold it under water till it is drowned and then bury it in the bank till it begins to putrefy; this is because their teeth are not adapted to tear flesh when it is fresh. The noise they make has been compared to the bellowing of a bull, and can be heard a mile away.

All the species hibernate in the colder climates, burying themselves in the mud beneath the pool. In tropical countries also they bury themselves in times of drought, and remain in a semi-torpid condition until awakened by returning moisture.

The pike-headed alligator is the largest and fiercest of the crocodile order. It measures from eighteen to twenty feet in length, and does not hesitate to attack human beings, if its ordinary food is scarce. When the female wishes to lay her eggs, she digs a deep hole in the sand, and deposits the eggs layer by layer to the number of about sixty, placing a thick matting of dried leaves and grass between each layer. The heat engendered by their decomposition helps, with the heat of the sun, to hatch the eggs. The mother remains near the nest till they are hatched, and then leads the young to the water and feeds and cares for them till they are grown.

The alligator is an ugly, clumsy-looking creature, but interesting to scientists because, though a reptile, it possesses some of the characteristics of the mammalia, thus forming a kind of connecting link between the mammals and the reptile world.

24. LONDON

Outline

(1) Locality: population.

(2) Its fascination due to—

(*a*) Its wealth of material.

(*b*) Its infinite variety.

(3) Its mixed character.
  (*a*) Slums in the West.
  (*b*) Beautiful places in the East.
(4) Its river.
(5) Conclusion; Dickens's London.

Essay

London is the capital of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and stands at the head of the navigable part of the river Thames. It is the largest city in the world, and indeed its area and population are so great that it is now reckoned as a county in itself.

It is a place that possesses great fascination for all who know it well. This is partly, perhaps, because it contains such wealth of material—such parks and squares, such palaces and theatres, such crowded thoroughfares and populous suburbs, that those who know it best know also how much more there is to know. Then too its diversity is so endless and so surprising. There is pleasure to be found in the mere walking about in the heart of London. At almost every corner one comes upon some ancient church or interesting old monument; some quaint name that calls up scenes of its past history, or some quiet "lodge in this vast wilderness" in the shape of an old secluded garden that has survived the changes of the centuries. There is no method in its building; one feels it is a spontaneous growth with something of the personality of a living thing.

We speak of the East end as the poor district, and the West as the rich, and to a great extent this is true; but the wanderer may turn out of some of the grandest streets in London straight into slums as small and as dirty as any in the East end; and he may walk down an East end slum and come upon lovely gardens bright with flowers and shaded with stately trees; or pass the entrance of some beautiful old mansion, now perhaps turned into a factory but still preserving in its fallen state the grandeur of its carved and stately portals, its wide halls, and its oak-panelled chambers.

What more than all gives London its personality is the Thames. A glance at a map of London shews how it winds its way through the mighty city; and as we walk its streets we come upon the river constantly and unexpectedly. And everywhere so different! Here it washes the dark entrance to the Traitors' Gate, a spot full of sad and terrible memories; there it is gay

with the noise and bustle of departing steamers. Here it flows broad and smooth past the historic towers and wide terraces of the Houses of Parliament; there it hurries by crowded wharfs and tall, grimy factory chimneys.

For the romantic aspects of the great city we may go to the novelist Dickens, who, like Johnson, was a Londoner to the backbone, and who has drawn for us with unerring pen many pictures of its varying moods, its ugliness and its beauty, its terror and its charm.

25. THE UMBRELLA

Outline

(1) Definition; the parasol.
(2) Primary uses.
    (*a*) For protection from sun.
    (*b*) As an emblem of authority.
(3) Introduced into England by Jonas Hanway for protection from rain.
(4) Adaptations.
    (*a*) To form tent.
    (*b*) To form parachute.

Essay

An umbrella is a portable canopy of silk or cotton extended on a folding frame composed of ribs or strips of steel, the frame being made to slide on a stick. It has been much improved since its first introduction into Europe, when it was a very clumsy contrivance, with a long handle, ribs of whalebone or cane very imperfectly jointed, and a covering of oiled silk or cotton which was apt to stick together in the folds. A small and light form of the umbrella, made of white or coloured material and carried by ladies as a protection from the sun, is called a parasol.

The original home of the umbrella was the countries situated near the equator, where people constructed a simple framework of bamboo and palm leaves as a protection from the burning rays of the tropical sun. Thus the primary use of the umbrella was to shelter from heat rather than from rain.

Again, in the East, the umbrella came to be regarded as an emblem of royalty and power. Many examples point to this fact. Thus on the sculptured remains of ancient Nineveh and Egypt

there may be seen representations of kings marching in state processions with umbrellas held over their heads. Indian princes adopted the title of "Lord of the Umbrella," and in 1855 the King of Burmah in addressing the Governor-General of India called himself the "Monarch who reigns over the great umbrella-bearing chiefs." In each of the Basilian churches at Rome there still remains suspended an umbrella. Among the Greeks and Romans, however, only women used umbrellas, men considering it effeminate to avail themselves of such a luxury.

As early as the seventeenth century the umbrella was known in England, for Michael Drayton in a poem on doves, writes:—

> "And like umbrellas, with their feathers
> Shield you in all sorts of weathers,"

and some of the coffee-houses kept one umbrella for the use of their customers; but it did not come into common use in England till after the death of Jonas Hanway in 1786. He appears to have been the first person who made a practice of carrying an umbrella in the streets of London, and bore the brunt of the ridicule which so often accompanies the introduction of anything strange and new, however excellent. In the end however he succeeded in convincing people that whereas in the East an umbrella is a good protection from the sun, in England it is an equally good protection from the rain. Indeed to the western mind the word umbrella at once suggests rain, and "Shall I need an umbrella?" is equivalent to saying "Is it likely to rain?"

While however this is the chief use of the umbrella, it serves other purposes. Large canvas umbrellas with flaps of the same material attached to them all round, are often used for bathing tents or summer shelters, while the parachute, used for dropping to the ground from a balloon, is formed on the same principle.

26. THE BRITISH MUSEUM

Outline

(1) Origin and history.
  (*a*) The Sloane collection.
  (*b*) George II's Library.
  (*c*) Legacies.
  (*d*) Purchases by Parliament.

(2) The edifice.
  (*a*) Reconstruction.

(*b*) Exterior.
(*c*) Interior.

(3) Contents.
(*a*) The Scientific and Zoological Sections at Kensington.
(*b*) Library.
(*c*) Archæological departments.
(i) Egyptian & Assyrian.
(ii) Greek & Roman.
(iii) Ethnological.
(iv) Coins and medals.

(4) Usefulness.
(*a*) Reading-Room.
(*b*) Explanatory labels.
(*c*) Guides.

(5) Reflections.

Essay

The British Museum originated in the private collection of Sir Hans Sloane, which he left to the nation on his death in 1753. He was a rich physician, who had devoted his whole life to collecting curiosities from all parts of the world; and these curiosities together with George II's royal library, were opened to the public as the " British Museum " in 1759. Many valuable legacies, especially private libraries, and collections of works of art, have been left to the museum at different times; while purchases authorised by the Act of Parliament have occionally been made, the most important being the acquisition of the Elgin Marbles in 1816 for the sum of £36,000.

An entire reconstruction of the original building was begun in 1828, and was finished in 1852. Its exterior is plain, except for a huge pillared portico surmounted by gilded designs and havi g a large gravelled space in front. Within the building is a large hall, from which open out passages and stairways to the various departments.

The treasures of the British Museum are so numerous that even so large a building could not hold everything, and the scientific and zoological collections have been housed in a separate building in Kensington, known as the Natural History Museum. Within the British Museum itself are housed the library, consisting of more than two million printed volumes with thousands of

manuscripts, and the archæological departments. These latter contain an important collection of Egyptian and Assyrian remains, including mummies, sarcophagi, statues and—perhaps most interesting of all—many hieroglyphic writings of a very ancient date, with translations appended for the benefit of the unlearned. The Greek and Roman antiquities, the specimens of the arts and industries of the different races of mankind, and the collection of coins and medals, are all more nearly complete than those of any other museum in the world.

No effort is spared to make the place a truly national one. There is a reading room in connexion with the library, the only entrance fee to which is a guarantee of respectability, and once there, all the books are at the readers' command. The antiquities are provided with explanatory labels, and at the present time a special official has been appointed to act as guide to any one wishing for fuller information, and should his services prove to be in request, the staff of guides is to be increased.

Thus it is plain that the British Museum contains much both of interest and instruction, and though the nation as yet does not take proper advantage of its treasures, the number of visitors to the Museum yearly grows larger, and there is little doubt that the people are taking increasing pride in the possession of this great national heritage.

27. A BOAR HUNT

Outline

(1) The start.
(2) The rousing of the boar.
(3) The chase.
(4) The boar's charge.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Boar hunting, or, as it is more usually called in India, "pig-sticking," is one of most exciting of all the different varieties of the chase. Early in the morning of the day of the hunt natives are sent out to "beat" a piece of marshy jungle such as boars generally retire to after their night's foraging. The hunters on horseback, wait in groups near at hand, armed with short, sharp spears.

When a boar is roused from his lair and dashes out into the open he is immediately pursued at a gallop by two of the hunters nearest to the place from which he breaks out. The horses on which they are mounted need to be both swift and agile, and Arabs are generally found to be the best for the purpose. The pace of the boars is so fast, that even on good ground they are not likely to be overtaken in less than a mile. As long as the country is open so that there is no danger of the animal's taking cover, the hunters prefer to keep up the pursuit, without attempting to arrive within striking distance. For the boar, as soon as he finds himself hard pressed, turns like lightning and charges his pursuers, and until he is fairly tired out such a charge is very dangerous on account of his tremendous strength and activity.

The chase itself calls for wariness and good horsemanship, as the ground is often full of holes and cracks, made during the periods of great heat, and afterwards completely hidden by rank vegetation. Sometimes too the boar will lead his pursuers over treacherous bogs which it requires great circumspection to cross safely. But all these demands upon the hunter are small compared with those made upon him when at last the boar turns at bay.

Then is needed not only skill in handling the horse to keep it from starting aside before the critical juncture of the boar's charge, but a quick eye and a steady hand to drive the spear into the boar's neck, when it makes its attack, as well as a cool judgment to calculate the right moment to do this and then spring aside in time to avoid the final rush. The smallest miscalculation may have serious results : as when once a hunter drove his spear not quite true, so that instead of penetrating the animal it slipped against the tough hide and struck the ground. The spear snapped with the strain, and the broken piece, flying upwards, pierced the horse he was riding and killed it instantly.

Boars are very savage and strong, and their mode of attack is to drive their stout, upcurled tusks under the body of their victim. If therefore a hunter is unhorsed and the boar charges him, his best hope of escape is to lie flat upon the ground. The danger attending this form of sport makes it only the more attractive to the sportsman, and we need not be surprised to find that it is one of the most popular pastimes of the Englishman in India.

28. THE BANYAN-TREE

Outline

(1) Description.
  (*a*) Genus.
  (*b*) Locality.
  (*c*) Habit of growth.
  (*d*) Size.
(2) Products.
  (*a*) Foliage.
  (*b*) Fruit.
  (*c*) Wood.
(3) Uses.
  (*a*) Place of entertainment.
  (*b*) Sacred tree of Brahmins.
(4) Summary.

Essay

The banyan-tree belongs to the fig genus, but its habit of growth is so extraordinary as to differentiate it from all the other species. It is found in all parts of India, but is not native to any other country. For the first hundred years it grows like any ordinary tree, except that its lateral branches stretch out to an unusual length. Then it begins to develope the characteristics for which it is remarkable. From near the ends of the long branches, rootlets are thrown out, which grow downwards till they reach the earth and there establish themselves, becoming new stems. These in their turn send forth long branches, which again throw out roots downwards. In this way a single tree becomes a spacious colonnade of stems spreading over a vast area and lasting for hundreds of years, even after the original stem has quite decayed. One famous tree has three hundred and fifty large trunks with more than three thousand smaller ones, covers a space sufficient to shelter seven thousand persons, and is said to have been standing when Alexander the Great was pushing his conquests over the then known world.

The leaves are very large and rounded in shape, and this no doubt led Milton to describe them as the fig leaves with which our first parents are said to have clothed themselves :—

> "There soon they chose
> The fig-tree, not that kind for fruit renowned,

But such as at this day to Indians known
In Malabar or Deccan spreads her arms.
. . . . . Those leaves
They gathered, broad as Amazonian targe."

The fruit is no larger than a cherry, of a bright scarlet colour, and grows in pairs in the axils of the leaves. It is of no value as food. The wood is light and porous, and consequently useless as timber.

The foliage is so dense that nothing will grow beneath it, and thus the wide-spreading spaces between its stems form a ready-cleared ground under a natural canopy very suitable for entertaining large companies of people. In such a place, which can be readily divided into suites of apartments, a rajah will have plenty of room to lodge the numerous retinue of a princely visitor, as if it were a magic palace built by a genie. The banyan is also the sacred tree of the Brahmins, and if it is found in the near neighbourhood, ruins of ancient temples can always be recognised as belonging to that caste.

This majestic tree, so unusual in its habit, and so extraordinary in its appearance, spreading over such large areas, and affording shelter, not only to thousands of people on the ground below, but to numberless birds and monkeys in the branches above, is one of the wonders of India, and well merits the attention and admiration that have been bestowed upon it by travellers in all ages and from all parts of the world.

29. CEYLON

Outline

(1) Situation and government.
(2) Description.
    (*a*) Northern part.
    (*b*) Southern part.
    (*c*) Coast.
(3) Inhabitants.
    (*a*) Singhalese.
    (*b*) Veddahs.
    (*c*) Tamils.
    (*d*) Moormen.
(4) Industries.
    (*a*) Pearl fisheries.
(5) Conclusion: a highly-favoured land.

(*b*) Mining for gems.
(*c*) Tea-planting.

Essay

Ceylon is an island lying to the south east of India, from which it is divided only by a narrow strait half bridged by a chain of rocky islets It is a British Crown colony, that is, it is governed by a ruler appointed by the Crown.

The northern part of the island consists of undulating plains covered with beautiful forests, which also clothe the mountainous district of the south. The coast is formed of deposits brought both by the ocean currents from the shores of India, and by the island rivers from the hills, and the shore thus formed is covered with cocoanut palms even to the water's edge. The picture of the island as it first dawns on the sight across the sea is thus one of extrene beauty ; the yellow sands, crowned with the graceful palms, stand out against the deep blue of the sea, while the distant hills, rising height beyond height, form a dim background of half-mysterious loveliness.

The principal inhabitants of the island are the Singhalese, who are supposed to have conquered the island about B.C. 500. There still remain in the eastern quarter of the island a few descendants of the aboriginal inhabitants called the Veddahs, who are almost more like animals than men. In the north live the Tamils, descendants of later settlers, and everywhere are found members of a highly intelligent race called Moormen, who are supposed to be of Arab descent.

The most important industries are pearl-fishing, which is a government monopoly ; mining for graphite and gems ; and tea cultivation. This last is grown on clearings on the southern slopes of the mountains, and is rapidly increasing in importance as a product.

Ceylon has a very equable temperature and a plentiful supply of rain in the southern districts ; in the north irrigation is successfully resorted to. Among other things that mark out the island as highly favoured by nature is the fact that it possesses about eight hundred species of plants that are found nowhere else in the world. What a treasure-house for the botanist ! Its forests and lakes abound with many kinds of beautiful birds, and it is singularly free from insect pests. No wonder that Eastern poets have described it as " the fertile land" and " the island of delight."

30. THE MOSQUITO.

Outline

(1) The mosquito the same as the gnat.
(2) Habitat.
(3) Only the female stings.
(4) The stinging process.
    (*a*) Structure of proboscis.
    (*b*) Injection of poison.
    (*c*) Dissemination of disease.
(5) Precautions against mosquitos.
    (*a*) Destruction of eggs.
    (*b*) Curtain.
    (*c*) Smoke.
    (*d*) Smearing with oil.
(6) Conclusion.

Essay

Mosquito is a Spanish word meaning "little fly," and is by most English people applied only to the large gnats common in tropical countries. There is, however, no essential difference between the tropical and the other species.

Mosquitos are not confined to any climate or locality. Nansen in his account of his north polar expedition says that they were so numerous in the north of Greenland that if he took off his gloves for an instant, his hands were covered with them so thickly that it looked as if he still wore his hairy gloves! It would seem, therefore, that mosquitos prefer extremes of temperature, since they certainly abound more in very hot and very cold countries than in temperate ones.

In nearly all the numerous species it is only the female that possesses the power of stinging. This fact has led some people to suggest that the drinking of blood is in some way necessary to her egg-laying; but when we consider the vast swarms of mosquitos, and the small proportion of them that can have the opportunity of tasting blood, this does not seem likely.

The process of stinging is as follows. The mosquito possesses a long flexible lower lip, in a groove in which lie five fine needle-like structures, two of which are barbed like arrows, while one has a hollow tube running down its length. The lower lip is placed firmly against the skin and then curled backwards, allowing the five "setae," as they are called, to enter the skin. When they are in as far as they can go, saliva is injected through the hollow tube, and blood is drawn up by a sort of pumping apparatus at the root. It has been conjectured that the saliva must be poisonous for the sting to be so painful, but no research has yet succeeded in finding any trace of it, and some authorities therefore say that the pain must be the result of the laceration caused by the withdrawal of the barbed "setae." Be this as it may, scientific experiments have made it clear that mosquitos can and do inject the germs of disease with the saliva. This is particularly the case with two species—one in India, which carries the microbe of elephantiasis, and another in Africa, which carries the malarial microbe. The dissemination of yellow fever is also largely, if not entirely, to be attributed to the mosquito, one species, the white-ribbed or tiger mosquito (*stegomyia*) being responsible for conveying the virus of this fever to human beings.

As the eggs of the mosquito are always laid round the edges of stagnant pools, it is important that, where possible, such pools should be emptied or filled up. Paraffin oil effectually destroys the eggs, so that it has been found possible in some malarial districts practically to exterminate the mosquito, and with it the malaria, by pouring this oil round the edges of all the ponds in the neighbourhood at breeding-time. It is difficult, however, to apply this expensive and troublesome remedy on any large scale, and in countries where mosquitoes abound, various other methods of guarding against them have been devised. In hot countries a mosquito curtain to cover the bed, is a necessary part of bedroom furniture. Among the villagers, where such curtains are not available, fires are lighted inside their huts and the mosquito is smoked off the premises. In the arctic regions the natives keep off these pests by smearing their bodies with oil.

It is only in recent time that scientific research has shown us how important it is to guard against the attacks of this noxious though seemingly insignificant insect.

31. COAL

Outline

(1) Application of the term.
(2) Origin.
(3) Varieties.
  (*a*) Lignite.
  (*b*) Anthracite.
  (*c*) Cannel Coal.
  (*d*) Welsh Coal.
(4) Distribution.
  (*a*) Great Britain and the United States.
  (*b*) Germany, Russia, and Australia.
  (*c*) China.
(5) Uses.
  (*a*) As fuel.
  (*b*) For smelting.
  (*c*) To produce gas.
  (*d*) To drive machinery.
  (*e*) To make tar and its products.
(6) Recapitulation.

Essay

The term coal was originally applied to any sort of fuel, and when what we now call coal was brought into general use, it was distinguished by the names of pit-coal or sea-coal. The latter name arose from the fact that the new fuel was usually transported by sea on account of its weight.

Various explanations of its origin have been put forward at different times, but the following is the one now generally accepted. During the carboniferous age vast forests covered the earth. Those situated on marshy ground or near the mouths of rivers were gradually submerged, and on the earthy deposits above them fresh forests grew, which were in their turn submerged. During succeeding ages these forests have been changed by compression and chemical action into the black, rock-like substance that we now know as coal.

We find, as we should expect, that there are many different kinds of coal; the differences arising partly from the original

quality of the wood, but chiefly from the length of the period of transformation. For instance, there are in Central Canada, great tracts of an inferior coal called lignite, which is brown in colour and still partially fibrous. At the other end of the scale is the coal of the oldest formation which is called anthracite or stone coal. It is very hard and black, and when kindled gives out great heat. Between these two extremes, there are so many varieties, that according to an Admiralty Report, more than seventy different kinds of coal are imported into London. The best known of these are Lancashire Cannel or Candle coal (so called because it burns with a very bright flame) and Welsh coal.

The chief coal-fields of the world are in Great Britain and the United States, the annual output of both countries being several hundred million tons. That a very large amount of coal is still available in Great Britain is known from the fact that a Royal Commission has calculated that in spite of the vast and steadily increasing output, it will last another thousand years! A considerable quantity of coal is also found in Germany, Russia, and Australia, while in China enormous coalfields are known to exist, which have not yet been opened up.

The uses to which coal has been put, besides its obvious use as fuel, are many. It is employed for smelting iron and other metal ores. From it is obtained the gas which still forms one of our chief means of illuminating both streets and houses. Locomotive and factory engines are for the most part driven by power derived from coal or gas. Another of its products is tar, from which are obtained various articles of high commercial value, such as naptha, creosote, saccharine, and aniline dyes.

Thus, to recapitulate, we see that coal is a natural product, found in varying quantities in most parts of the globe. Its importance can hardly be over-estimated, since it provides us not only with warmth and light and driving power for our machinery but with several valuable articles of commerce.

32. THE APE.

Outline

(1) Definition of the term.

(2) Limited to three species.

(*a*) The chimpanzee and the gorilla.

(*b*) The orang-utan.
(*c*) The gibbon.
(3) Characteristics.
(4) Habitat.
(5) Interest to us.

Essay

The term *ape* was at one time applied indiscriminately to all the monkey tribe; but it is now confined by zoologists to those members of the tribe which have certain distinctive features wherein they resemble man more closely than do their fellows. These are the absence of tail and of cheek pouches, and the possession of teeth of the same number and form as man's.

The above definition limits the appellation to three well-known species: the chimpanzee, the orang-utan, and the gibbon. Of these the first two compete for the position of being next to man in the scale of animal life. The chimpanzee is the more intelligent, and its proportions are more human; but the skull of the orang-utan bears the greater resemblance to that of man.

The legs of the orang are very short compared with its body, and its arms are so long that they reach below the knees, so that it walks slowly and clumsily, supporting itself first on one side and then on the other with its arms, like a lame man with his crutches. The arms and legs of the chimpanzee, on the other hand, being more like those of a human being, it walks upright without the assistance of its arms. The neck of a chimpanzee is similar to that of a human being, while the orang's is furnished with a large goitre-like sack. This is supposed to give the animal its peculiarly loud and resonant voice, which can be heard for miles. The gibbons are a less known and inferior kind of ape, having a small flattened skull, and two of the fingers of the hind limbs united as far as the nail. In their native woods they display the most marvellous activity, and have been known to catch a bird while on the wing.

The chimpanzee, with its near relation, the gorilla, is found on the west coast of equatorial Africa; the orang-utan inhabits the remote forests of Sumatra and Borneo; and the gibbons are abundant in the Malay peninsula and islands. The chimpanzees live in companies in the woods, build themselves rough huts of the branches of trees, and arm themselves with tree stumps. The young of all the different species of apes have been kept in

captivity and prove gentle and docile, though peevish and irritable when crossed; but they do not as a rule, live long in this state, though there are instances of chimpanzees that have grown up in captivity, and have shown amazing intelligence.

The strong resemblance of the apes to the human race makes it impossible for us to regard them with indifference. They fill some people with fascinated interest and others with instinctive repulsion. But whatever our feelings towards them, we cannot but recognise in them that section of the animal creation which is most nearly allied to ourselves.

33. LAKES

Outline

(1) How a lake differs from an ocean and a river.
(2) The mountain lake and the low-lying lake described.
(3) The chief lakes of the world.
  (*a* Swiss and Italian lakes.
  (*b* African and American lakes.
  (*c*) Lakes of Asia.
  (*d*) European lakes.
  (*e*) Lakes of the British Isles.
(4) The English lake district and its literary associations.

Essay

A lake has a character all its own. It is of little importance as a means of communication, like the great ocean highways of commerce, or like the river down whose stream barges carry merchandise, and ships are continually passing in their voyages from port to port. A lake is in its nature something apart, something outside the busy stir of life and action; and as we gaze upon the lonely waters of a lake on a still summer evening there seems to be an element of mystery, almost of enchantment, in the scene, and the sight of a steamer laden with eager sight-seers breaking in upon the silence, comes to us with a shock of incongruity.

The most beautiful lakes are those lying high among the mountains. Here the jutting rocks and tall pines mirrored in the calm surface of the lake and the blue mountains in the distance fading into haze, combine to form a picture unsurpass-

able in its majesty and repose. But the low-lying lake has also a charm of its own. The abode of the wild duck and the heron, where the sedge sighs in the breeze and the melancholy note of the plover is heard overhead, it presents a weird solitude much like that of the "great water" pictured by Tennyson, where the only sound was that of

> "The ripple washing in the reeds,
> And the wild water lapping on the crag."

Lakes are found in almost every country in the world. Switzerland is the country richest in them, considering its size. But the lakes of Switzerland, of which the best known are those of Geneva and of Lucerne, and the Italian lakes—Constance, Maggiore, and Como—although very beautiful, are insignificant in size, compared with the immense lakes of Africa and the new world. Victoria Nyanza and Tanganyika in Equatorial Africa, and the five North American lakes are so large that they might almost be reckoned as inland seas. Asia likewise has a few large lakes, such as lake Aral and lake Baikal, which, although they cannot compete with those of Africa and America, are yet considerably larger than most of the European lakes. For of great lakes Europe has but few. Probably the largest are Ladoga and Onega in Russia, followed closely by the Swedish lakes, Venner and Vetter. The British Isles as a whole are not rich in lakes. Ireland has Loch Neagh and Loch Erne, and Scotland Lochs Ness, Lomond, Morar, and Tay; the lakes of both countries adding much to their picturesqueness. In England the lakes are almost entirely confined to a spot known as the "Lake District" which is comprised within the limits of two counties. It is one of the most beautiful parts of England, though now rather spoilt by hotels and railways, which have sprung up for the benefit of the invading hosts of tourists.

The Lake District is inseparably connected with the names of the great writers who have made it their home. Associations of Wordsworth cling round Coniston, Rydal water, and Grasmere. Derwentwater is still remembered as the favourite haunt of Coleridge and of Southey—the lake on whose calm shore Ruskin once stood and mused. De Quincey too and Hartley Coleridge, Matthew Arnold and Carlyle, were amongst those who knew and loved this fair region,

> "With all its solemn imagery, its rocks,
> Its woods, and that uncertain heaven received
> Into the bosom of the steady lake."

34. THE CAMEL

Outline

(1) Description.
(2) How many varieties, and where found.
(3) Disposition.
(4) Useful characteristics.
  (*a*) Strength.
  (*b*) Swiftness.
  (*c*) Special formation of feet for travelling on sand.
  (*d*) Endurance.
(5) Defects.
  (*a*) Peculiar action makes it uncomfortable to ride.
  (*b*) Useless on wet ground.

Essay

The camel is a ruminant mammal, remarkable for its great size, especially for the length of its legs and neck, and for having on its back either one or two fatty humps, which increase or diminish in size according to its physical condition. It is one of the few animals of which the wild representatives have long since become extinct; for although wild camels are now found in some countries, it is almost certain that they are descendants of domestic animals which have at some former time escaped from captivity.

There are two varieties of camel; the Arabian, which is found from Africa to India, and the Bactrian, which is found from the Crimea to Turkestan and Pekin. The former has one hump and the latter two. Camels have also been introduced into some parts of Australia and North America where there are extensive tracts of desert country, in which they have proved very useful.

Although the camel has from time immemorial been a purely domestic animal, it seems to be incapable of forming for man any such attachment as often exists between him and the other creatures that he has in his service; nor has it attained to any such degree of intelligence as is possessed by the elephant, the horse, the dog, or even the bullock. It is stupid and vicious, and its appearance is as unattractive as its disposition.

In spite, however, of these defects, the camel has qualities which make it of the highest value to its masters. Its great strength enables it to bear heavy loads, while its length of limb gives it swiftness. The formation of its feet is such that it can travel with ease over sandy ground, the two toes being embedded in a large pad-like cushion, and having only small nails on the upper surface of their extremities. Moreover it is able to go without water for several days together. Hence it is invaluable as a means of transport in dry countries where the roads are not too rocky, and especially in sandy deserts.

It is true that the characteristics which specially fit it for this purpose have their drawbacks. Owing to its long stride, and its habit of moving the two feet on each side simultaneously, riding on it is an uncomfortable and even painful experience for a beginner; and it is often unable to keep its feet on wet or slippery ground. But although for these reasons its usefulness is limited to countries where the natural conditions are suited to it, it is perhaps of all domestic animals the most indispensable to its owners. The cow, the horse, the dog, the sheep, could be dispensed with, though not always very conveniently; but to the dwellers in the deserts life without the camel would be almost impossible.

35. A STORM AT SEA.

Outline

(1) Description.
- (*a*) Rising of storm.
- (*b*) Breakers on shore.
- (*c*) Storm out at sea.

(2) As felt on shipboard.
- (*a*) Terrifying sounds.
- (*b*) Force of wind.
- (*c*) Worse for passengers than for sailors.

(3) It shows—
- (*a*) The helplessness of man before the forces of nature.
- (*b*) The value of courage and skill.

(4) Reflections.

Essay

In times of calm, both sea and sky look so peaceful that one can hardly imagine their taking a threatening aspect; but with the rising of a storm the scene is completely changed. The sky becomes overcast and the surface of the sea ruffled; the waves grow every minute higher and more confused; till the smooth expanse of clear, blue water is transformed into a wild waste of angry, grey, foam-tipped billows. The storm is perhaps seen in its most impressive aspect where the ocean meets the land and the waves break on the shore with seemingly irresistible force, tumbling over in huge sheets of foam, and forming one of the most magnificent and awe-inspiring sights in nature; but even out at sea, where the waves can run their course unbroken by any obstacle, it is a grand spectacle.

In the case of those on board ship, however, admiration of the grandeur of a storm is apt to be swallowed up in the thought of their own discomfort and danger. The sounds of the storm combine with its sights to daunt them—the howling of the wind, the roaring of the waves, and all the confused and varied noises made by the vessel, as she rolls and pitches to and fro: while if they expose themselves to the wind, it strikes them with such force that they can hardly stand against it. Such an experience is particularly trying to passengers, who, besides being for the most part less accustomed to it than sailors, have no work to distract their attention. Moreover, as the storm increases in violence, they are often ordered down below, and thus may have to spend hours in a state of uncertainty as to the extent of their danger, not knowing at any moment whether the ship may not be on the point of striking a rock or foundering in deep water.

A storm at sea is one of those natural phenomena which impress on man his helplessness before the convulsions of the elements; yet it sometimes also serves to show that he is not so helpless as he seems, and that courage and skill, self-devotion and discipline, may go far towards making him master of the winds and the waves. Even a small vessel if well-built, well-found, and well-handled, may weather the fiercest gale.

Like other emergencies, storms at sea bring out the true characters of men, and distinguish the unselfish from the selfish, the cowards from the brave; and they have been the occasion of innumerable deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice.

36. THE HORSE

Outline

(1) Useful to mankind all over the world.
(2) Domesticated from early times.
(3) Good qualities; purposes for which used.
  (*a*) Agriculture.
  (*b*) Driving machinery.
  (*c*) Transport.
  (*d*) War.
  (*e*) Hunting.
  (*f*) Racing.
  (*g*) Riding.
(4) Displaced by modern inventions.
(5) Varieties produced by—
  (*a*) Local conditions.
  (*b*) Breeding.
(6) Disposition.
  (*a*) Nervous.
  (*b*) Its tenacious memory.
  (*c*) Willing and affectionate.
(7) Conclusion.

Essay

The horse has, from time immemorial, been one of the animals most useful to mankind: and as it has great capacity for adapting itself to different conditions of life, there are few races that have not availed themselves of its services. In the islands of the Pacific the horse was unknown until it was introduced by European explorers; and there are probably still more remote islands in this and other seas where it has never been seen; while there are parts of Africa where it is unable to survive the attacks of the tsetse fly; but throughout much the greater part of the world, wherever man is found in any considerable numbers the horse is found too.

There are still in some countries wild horses which are supposed to have come down from the original primitive stock through an unbroken succession of wild ancestors; but it must have been long ages ago that horses were first domesticated, as

in the earliest times of which we have any record they were generally used even by the least civilised races.

The qualities which have made the horse so valuable are its speed, strength, and docility; and men have used it for almost all purposes for which their own speed or strength was insufficient. In many countries it is the animal principally employed in agricultural work, such as ploughing; sometimes it is set to drive mills or other machinery; it has perhaps been more extensively used than any other animal for the transport of goods and persons, and the delivery of messages requiring haste; and in war and hunting it has made its rider far more formidable than he could have been on foot. It has not only helped men in their serious business, but has also contributed to their recreations. Horse-racing has in all ages been a popular sport, and riding on horse-back is one of the pleasantest and at the same time one of the healthiest forms of exercise.

Modern inventions have robbed the horse of some of its importance; steam, electricity, and petrol have to a large extent displaced it in the pursuits of peace, and gunpowder has made it less formidable in war; but it is not yet by any means superseded.

Like all domestic animals, the horse has many varieties, differing widely both from one another and from the wild stock in which they had their common origin. Some of these are peculiar to one locality, and others have resulted from the efforts of breeders to produce a type of horse suited to a particular purpose. Thus we have horses of all sizes, from the little pony to the gigantic dray-horse, combining strength, speed, and endurance in very varying proportions. Perhaps the most famous of the local breeds is the Arab horse; while of the most curious is the Shetland pony, a shaggy little animal not much bigger than a large dog.

The horse is in some respects not one of the most intelligent of animals, and is easily frightened by anything unusual, however harmless; though in facing dangers to which it is accustomed it often shows great courage. It has, however, a very tenacious memory, and seldom forgets anything that it has once learnt; and although horses vary considerably in disposition, as a rule they are willing and affectionate; and even the most vicious can be tamed by a judicious combination of firmness and kindness.

Possessing so many attractive qualities, horses have naturally

been held in high honour among men, and a strong attachment often exists between them and their owners. The names of some horses have even become famous in history, one of the most celebrated being Bucephalus, the charger of Alexander the Great.

37. THE HUMAN HAND

Outline

(1) The hand the instrument of the brain.

(2) Man's superiority to lower animals shown in his hand.
  (*a*) Animals use limbs chiefly for locomotion.
  (*b*) Man uses hands for holding and moving things; the requisites for this.

(3) Comparison between men and other animals in these respects.
  (*a*) Apes.
  (*b*) Squirrels.
  (*c*) Elephants.

(4) Hands give man superiority to lower animals in—
  (*a*) Digging.
  (*b*) Fighting.
  (*c*) Keenness of vision.
  (*d*) Swiftness.
  (*e*) Strength.

(5) Conclusion.

Essay

The hand is the principal instrument by which man carries out the designs which his brain has conceived, by which he provides for his necessities and pleasures, and by which he defends himself against the dangers to which he is exposed. From the point of view, indeed, of a man's practical work in life, all the other members of the body may be considered as subsidiary to the brain and the hands. The internal organs nourish them, and the feet carry them from place to place; but it is the brain that directs a man's work, and, in the great majority of cases, the hands that carry it out.

Next to the brain, the human hand is perhaps the part of man's physical structure in which his superiority to the lower

animals is most conspicuously shown. Other animals use all four limbs chiefly for purposes of locomotion; but man has abandoned this function to his lower limbs, and has made of his hand and arms an apparatus for laying hold of things and moving them. The principal requisities for efficiency in such an apparatus are, first, strength of grasp; secondly, adjustability to objects of different sizes; and thirdly, freedom of motion, so that the object held may be moved in any direction and placed in any position required. There are many animals which equal or even excel man in one or other of these requisites, but none that can vie with him in all.

The ape, in the form of its hands as in many other characteristics, is the animal which most nearly resembles man; he can grasp a bough as firmly as a man can do, perhaps more so, and can move it with as much freedom; but he cannot pick up a needle off the floor, since his hands are so constructed that the ends of the fingers and thumb will not meet. Some other animals, such as the squirrel, use their forepaws as hands; but they can hold anything only by using them both at once, a disability which greatly reduces their freedom of motion; and this requisite is possessed in an even smaller degree by animals that use their mouths to hold things with. Perhaps the nearest rival to the human hand, in all three requisites, is the trunk of the elephant; but an elephant has only one trunk, and consequently, when he has once taken hold of anything, he cannot shift his grasp without letting go of it.

Man can therefore do with his hands many things that none of the lower animals can do at all, and can do well other things that they can only do badly; and in addition to this, by the use of his hands he can provide himself with instruments which will enable him to excel the animals even in things that otherwise they could do better than he. The forefoot of a badger is a more effective digging instrument than the hand of a man; but it is not so effective as a spade. A tiger can strike a harder blow with his paw than a man could with his fist; but with his hands man can make and use a weapon which will place the strongest tiger at his mercy. Many animals have keener sight than man; but his brain sets his hands to work, and produces a telescope which extends his range of vision far beyond theirs. To obtain the full use of his hands, man has been compelled to go on two legs, so that the advantages thus gained have been purchased at the cost of speed, and almost any animal that goes

on four legs can outrun him. Most animals, moreover, that are anywhere near his size are stronger than he is; yet by means of the instruments which he makes with his hands he can capture and tame them, and compel them to use their strength and speed in his service; and he can build locomotives swifter than the race-horse and more powerful than the elephant. Thus we may safely conclude that, next to the development of the brain, the development of the hand has been the chief means of raising man above the level of the brute creation.

38. THE PEACOCK

Outline

(1) Genus and habitat; two species.
(2) The Indian peacock.
  (*a*) Its gregarious habit.
  (*b*) Its speed of foot.
  (*c*) Its plumage.
(3) The Javan peacock.
(4) The domesticated peacock in—
  (*a*) Greece.
  (*b*) Judæa.
  (*c*) Rome.
  (*d*) England.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

This beautiful and well-known bird belongs to a genus closely allied to the pheasant. There are two distinct species: the ordinary one, which is domesticated in many European countries, and is a native of India and Ceylon; and a less-known one, which is a native of Java, Borneo, and other islands of the Malay Archipelago.

The Indian species, in a wild state, lives in flocks in mountainous, wooded districts, and is difficult to shoot on account of the great speed with which it can run, which makes it almost impossible to compel the bird to take wing. A flock of pea-fowl is supposed to be generally accompanied by a tiger; but whether because the tiger preys on them, or because they are of service to

him by warning him of approaching foes, is not known. It is not till the third year that peacocks acquire the full glory of their plumage, which is too well-known to call for description here; but it should be noted that the beautiful feathers which it can erect into a fan at will, and which are usually described as its tail, are not a tail at all, but the feathers of its back. This is plain when it raises them, since nothing but the head and neck are then to be seen in front of the fan. The true tail is small and insignificant.

The Javan peacock is a still handsomer bird than the Indian; the crest on the head is twice as high and more brilliantly coloured, and there is a great deal of iridescent gold mingled with the blue and green of the neck and the train.

Peacocks were introduced into Greece very early in its history. They are commonly supposed to have first been brought by Alexander the Great, but they are mentioned in two plays of Aristophanes, who wrote before Alexander was born. They were known in Judæa still earlier, for we read that in Solomon's time "the navy of Tarshish brought gold and silver, ivory, and apes and peacocks." A dish made of the tongues and brains of peacocks was one of the great luxuries of the decadent days of Rome. In England a peacock was at one time as indispensable dish at all grand feasts; but it is now kept only for its beauty.

This beauty is so remarkable that it seems a pity that it should be marred by the bird's harsh, disagreeable cry. But this is only an illustration of the law of compensation prevailing throughout nature; any special advantage in one particular being usually counterbalanced by a corresponding disadvantage in another.

39. THE CLIMATE OF INDIA.

Outline

(1) Its variation owing to the size of the country.
(2) The three seasons: hot, cool, and rainy.
(3) The causes of the rainy season.
(4) The variations in rainfall; produce famines.
(5) The different degrees of heat and cold in—
    (*a*) The Himalayas.
    (*b*) The central table-land.

(*c*) The North-west provinces.
(*d*) The southern parts.
(6) Conclusion.

Essay

The climate of a country that extends over so large an area as India, and has its southern extremity in the torrid zone, while to the north, its mountainous boundary rises into the regions of perpetual snow must necessarily be very varied. Nevertheless it possesses certain strongly-marked characteristics, which are common, in a greater or less degree, to the whole country.

The most striking of these characteristics is its division into well-marked seasons, the hot, the cool, and the rainy. This is true of all parts of the country, even the Himalayas, though the amount of heat or cold and the duration of the rainy season vary greatly in different parts. The rainy season is caused by the heat of the sun in summer, which draws up vast stores of moisture from the surrounding oceans, and also, by raising the temperature of the land and therefore of the air above it, produces a flow of air from the sea, called the south-west monsoons. These bring the moisture over the land and there deposit it in the form of rain. The greatest rainfall is on the south-west coast of India, and in the valley of the Ganges; while in the central plains of India the rainfall is not very great, and has to be supplemented by vast irrigation works. When the monsoon fails, as it does occasionally, these irrigation works are insufficient to supply all the water needed for the crops, and the result is the terrible famines which have devastated India from time to time.

In the hot season there are great differences in temperature in different parts. On the slopes of the Himalayas in the north, and on the Nilgiris in the south the heat is never very great, while the central table-land is comparatively cool, with no great variations of temperature. In the North-west Provinces the changes are extreme, from burning heat with hot winds in the summer to a temperature sufficiently low for night frosts in the winter. In the south the variation is much less, from a considerable degree of heat in the summer to a very moderate coolness in the winter.

Thus we see that though the climate of India varies with the locality, so that in some districts it is very trying to Europeans, and in others very similar to their own; yet it everywhere

possesses three well-defined seasons, which strikingly distinguish it from the uncertain and changeable climate of Europe and especially of the British Isles.

40. THE BAMBOO

Outline

(1) Genus and habitat.
(2) Description.
(3) Products.
    (*a*) Indian honey.
    (*b*) Tabashir.
    (*c*) Water.
(4) Uses of—
    (*a*) The young stems and seeds.
    (*b*) The dried leaves.
    (*c*) The dried stems.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

The bamboo belongs to the genera of the grasses, and has eighty-three different species. They are all inhabitants of hot countries, growing both in the eastern and western hemispheres; and are found on the Himalayas even to an altitude of 12,000 feet.

Some of the species are short, while others attain a height of as much as 100 feet. They are all slender in comparison with their height, and like all grasses have jointed stems, light, strong, and elastic, filled with pith between the joints which, with the stems, are hard and strong. One species has creeping stems, but all the rest stand erect. A species that grows in China and Japan has square stems, instead of round. All are very hardy and of rapid growth, and can subsist in dry situations where nothing else will grow.

The pith of some species is sugary, and at certain seasons oozes out at the joints and becomes solid by contact with the air. This is called Indian honey, and is often used by the country people instead of sugar. Another substance which sometimes forms in the stems of some of the Indian kinds is called *tabashir*, and has a great reputation as a tonic. It possesses the power of

absorbing its own weight of water, when it becomes entirely transparent. Some of the South American species have their stems filled with a clear fluid which tastes like pure spring water.

The uses to which this valuable plant is put in the countries in which it abounds are almost endless. The young stems are eaten as a vegetable, or pickled along with the young root-stocks, forming a condiment called *achar*. The seeds of some species are eaten, and also used for making a kind of beer. In China the dried leaves of one particular variety are made into mats, which are employed, among other things, for packing tea for transportation. But the dried stems are the most valuable product, and it would be hard to say what they are not used for. The houses of the poor in some districts are entirely built of them; they are used to make masts, fences, carts, furniture, agricultural and domestic implements, and even bridges; water-pipes are formed of them by removing the joint. They are imported into Europe, where they are made into walking-sticks, wicker-work, and other things. They are also split up fine, and then manufactured into ropes, mats, and even sails, while both the internal and external scrapings produce an excellent paper.

We thus see that the value of the bamboo can hardly be estimated too highly; being so hardy a plant and such a rapid grower, it might be utilised more than it is to turn many of the waste places of the earth into green and prosperous regions.

III REFLECTIVE ESSAYS

41. ARBITRATION

Outline

(1) Definition.
(2) A growth of civilization.
(3) Two kinds of arbitration.
  (*a*) Industrial.
  (*b*) International.
(4) Example of the latter.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

The word " arbitration " comes from a Latin verb (*arbitrari*), meaning to consider or decide ; and an arbitrator is a person (who should be wholly disinterested) who decides between the rival claims of two parties in a dispute, in order that it may be settled peaceably.

In the earliest times there were no judges ; the wronged man hunted down and slew his adversary, to be, in his turn, hunted down by his adversary's relatives, until whole families were exterminated. At last, however, as civilization advanced, men came to realise so strongly the evil of this state of things that they brought their causes to another to decide, and this was the beginning of arbitration. Thus courts of law with the judge as arbitrator, replaced the old plan of decision by physical force ; and now people desire to develop this better method further, since they cannot help seeing how beneficent are its effects in the daily life of the community.

There are two main kinds of arbration, industrial and international. Industrial arbitration, for the most part, has to do with quarrels between labour and capital. We find in history many instances of revolts of the working classes against their employers, because they either were oppressed or thought that they were ; for in those days there were none to listen to their grievances unless they brought them into notice by deeds of violence. Later the workers, by banding themselves together

in trade unions, were enabled to substitute strikes for these revolts. Strikes, unhappily, are still frequent, but gradually disputes between employers and employees are being settled by arbitration, the two parties agreeing to submit the subject of contention to some prominent personage, in several instances a member of the government, and to abide by his decision. International arbitration deals with the quarrels of nations with one another. It has been promoted by the efforts of the Peace Society, founded in 1816, and in various peace congresses. The principle of arbitration in place of war was adopted by the Pan-American Congress at Washington in 1890; and in 1899 the International Peace Conference at which 26 States were represented, met at the Hague, where two years later a permanent Court of Arbitration was established. In the year 1912 an important Treaty of Arbitration was negociated between Great Britain and the United States of America.

A remarkable instance of the success of arbitration in preventing disastrous war occurred in 1872 when it was agreed that the dispute between England and the United States over the claims for damages made by the latter on account of the *Alabama* losses should be settled by an arbitration tribunal. This tribunal, comprising commissioners from Italy, Switzerland, Brazil, the United States, and great Britain, met at Geneva, and eventually awarded more than three million pounds damages to the United States.

Thus slowly but, let us hope, surely arbitration is gaining ground. The battle is hard, for it has to be fought against the deep-rooted prejudice that "might is right" and the primitive brute instincts of anger and revenge; but it is something that men's eyes are being opened to the waste and ruin caused by strikes and wars and that they are increasingly looking forward to a time when justice shall be established not by force but by the peaceable method of arbitration.

42. LAW AND ORDER ARE THE BASIS OF ALL TRUE FREEDOM

Outline

(1) Three definitions freedom.
(2) The first considered
(3) The second considered

(4) The third considered.

(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Let us first consider what we mean by freedom. The average man would define it as the not being subject to compulsion or restraint from others. Locke says, " That which has or has not the power to operate, is alone that which is or is not free," And a somewhat cynical wise man once declared, " Freedom is a change of masters." Let us examine these definitions of freedom, and see how they bear upon our subject.

Take the first definition, which applies to the individual as part of the community. We see at once that communities could not exist at all were there no limit placed to this definition of freedom. If every man determined to do only what pleased him without consideration for others, the result would be anarchy, since each man in pleasing himself and following his own will would inevitably obstruct the will and the pleasure of others. Thus one or two things would happen : either no one would be able to carry out his own will, or those who were stronger than the rest would act according to their own pleasure and impose their will on the others. In either case true freedom would cease to exist. In order to remedy this condition of things, either laws must be made to which all will conform, or every member of the community must be ruled and guided by the desire to serve others, and universal altruism take the place of legislative authority. Only in one of these two ways can the will of one avoid clashing with that of another, and the result be true liberty for all.

According to our second definition, a free man is one who has the power to operate, that is, is able to carry out any plans and designs, which must be in conformity with law and an ordered state of government, or they will interfere with the like power in his fellows.

The third definition, that freedom is to change masters, applies to the individual as distinct from the community, and a profound truth underlies its cynicism. For a man who, in his desire to feel himself free, determines to regulate his conduct simply by his own desires, will sooner or later find himself overcome by them, and " of what a man is overcome, of the same he is held in bondage." And bondage to one's appetites is a worse

bondage than can ever be imposed from without. A man to be truly free must therefore have control over his desires, and must regulate them according to some fixed rule of conduct.

Thus we see that law and order are necessary even for the individual apart from his social life, and still more necessary for the community, if any true freedom is to be attained by either. For "Of Law," writes Hooker, "there can be no less acknowledged than that her seat is the bosom of God, her voice the harmony of the world: all things in heaven and earth do her homage, the very least as feeling her care, and the greatest as not exempted from her power."

43. GAMBLING

Outline

(1) Definition.
(2) Difference between gambling and betting.
(3) Two principles contravened by gambling.
    (*a*) Right use of money.
    (*b*) Fair exchange.
(4) Harmful effects.
    (*a*) Unwholesome excitement.
    (*b*) Evil passions roused.
    (*c*) Temptation to peculation.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Gambling is properly playing a game for money or anything of value; but the term is generally used to include betting—that is, staking money on the issue of a race or any contest in which the results depend to a large extent upon chance. Another form of gambling is speculation in stocks and shares; the speculator buying the shares not as a permanent investment, but in the hope that by their rise in value he may presently be able to sell them at a profit.

We see at once that there is this essential difference between gambling and betting: *viz.*, that in gambling proper the man who stakes the money plays the game or conducts the speculation, that is, does something towards obtaining the money; whereas in betting, the man who stakes the money does nothing but look on; and so far betting is worse than gambling.

There are two important moral principles that are contravened by these practices. The first principle is that our money, as well as our abilities, are given us, not to do as we please with, but to use in the service of humanity. And no kind of usefulness or service can possibly be claimed on behalf of any form of gambling. The other is, that it is essentially immoral to expect or desire to gain something without giving an equivalent. It is in regard to this principle that betting is worse than gambling, since in betting a man gives nothing whatever in return for the money he may win. In gambling, however, whether in a game or in stock-exchange speculation, the skill employed is usually so slight compared with the money stake, that this consideration raises gambling but little above the level of betting.

Another bad point in gambling is that its pleasure consists in an unnatural and very unwholesome form of excitement, and that under its influence some of the worst passions—cruelty, greed, and selfishness—are called into being. Persistant gambling, too, almost always brings ruin in its train: the clerk who gambles too often yields to the temptation to retrieve his losses by putting his hand into his employer's till.

Thus gambling is harmful, not so much for what it is, as for the degradation of character that inevitably accompanies it; and this degradation springs from the defiance of the two principles set forth above—principles which should control and direct all the actions of our lives.

44. CLEANLINESS

Outline

(1) Importance of cleanliness.

(2) To the body.
  (*a*) Dirt the breeding-ground of microbes.
  (*b*) Dirt, the chief cause of the epidemics of the middle ages.
  (*c*) Arrangements to exclude dirt in modern hospitals.

(3) To the mind.
  (*a*) Ill health is the cause of much mental disease.
  (*b*) Cleanliness implies effort, which braces the mind.

(4) To the soul; cleanliness produces self-respect.

(5) Conclusion.

Essay

"Cleanliness is next to godliness" says the proverb, and indeed its importance can hardly be overestimated. Cleanliness is indispensable to a healthy condition of body, mind, and soul. Let us consider this quality in relation to each of the three in detail.

When doctors discovered that all diseases could be traced to some particular germ or microbe, they also discovered that all these germs flourished in dirt, and dwindled away under the influence of fresh air and cleanliness. Thus dirt is one of the main causes of disease. And we now know that the terrible plagues and epidemics that raged in Europe in the middle ages and still devastate the East, were and are primarily caused by filthy and insanitary conditions of life; and it is only as cleaner conditions prevail that these outbreaks become things of the past. So strong is modern hygiene convinced of this, that numerous method have been invented to prevent the presence of dirt in the more modern hospitals, even the walls and floors being joined by *curved* wainscoting so as to leave no surface on which dust or dirt can lodge.

With regard to the mind—in the first place, there is undoubtedly much truth in the old Latin proverb, *Mens sana in corpore sano*, "A healthy mind in a healthy body." For bodily ill health is too often the prime cause of mental disease. If a man is perfectly sound and healthy in body, he is likely to be equally so in mind. The mere fact of keeping oneself and one's surroundings clean, implies effort, both mental and physical, and all effort has a bracing effort upon the mind. That it requires mental affort is illustrated by a case which lately caused some discussion in the daily press. A poor woman was charged with keeping her house and children dirty. Among the points urged in her defence was the fact that she had been starving herself to feed the children, and that in her consequent depressed condition she felt as if, in her own words, "she couldn't care whether the place was clean or not." That physical effort is necessary is too obvious to need illustration. It is always easier not to do things than to do them!

With regard to our moral nature, there is no doubt, that cleanliness produces self-respect. In *Great Expectations* Dickens tells us of one of the characters, when she is first introduced to us in mean and depressing circumstances, that "her hair

always wanted brushing, and her hands always wanted washing." Later on in the story, when describing a happier stage of her existence he writes, "her hair was bright and neat, her hands were always clean."

Thus we come to the conclusion that cleanliness is so important, that the old saying quoted at the beginning of this essay is hardly an exaggeration. Cleanliness is a quality that is of the greatest value in promoting our health, while it also contributes in no small degree to both our mental and our spiritual well-being.

45. LETTER-WRITING.

Outline

(1) An ancient art.
(2) Old materials—stone, papyrus, parchment—more durable than paper, and therefore better preservatives of ancient records.
(3) Letters long in old times.
(4) The art of letter-writing killed in modern times by—
  (*a*) Daily Papers.
  (*b*) Railways and steamships.
  (*c*) Telegraph and telephone.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Letter-writing must be regarded as a very ancient art, for the desire to communicate with people at a distance was undoubtedly the origin of written characters; the idea of writing books for the general reader would come as a later development.

Many different materials have been used for letter-writing. In the early days of Egypt and Assyria letters were engraved on stone columns or pyramids. In the British Museum there is a series of these letters written from an Assyrian king to a royal ally. The messenger of those days with his clumsy stone burden would be as much astonished at the modern postman's thousands of daily letters, as the modern postman would be if he were required to convey epistles as large and heavy as those of the old Assyrian king. It is a far cry from those elaborately carved letters of the ancient world to the hastily written note of to-day. The next material that was used for letters was the inner bark of the flower stems of the papyrus, a rush that abounds in Egypt.

Parchment, the skin of a young animal dressed and smoothed, came into general use about B.C. 200 and continued to be practically the only writing material till the beginning of the tenth century when paper was invented. Since paper is not so durable as papyrus, parchment, or stone, it is well for us that it was not invented earlier ; otherwise many of the valuable writings of ancient times would not have been preserved for us.

In the days when printing was unknown, and travelling difficult and dangerous, letter-writing was the only means of enabling people to keep in touch with their friends at a distance. We find therefore, as we should expect, that it was a much more lengthy and important business then than it is now. Who for instance would seriously sit down to compose a letter as long as one of St. Paul's to his Gentile converts—the *Epistle to the Romans* for instance ?

The letters that have come down to us from later times—as the Paston Letters—are invaluable for the records they contain of current events, fashions, and manners. But with the introduction of daily papers, letters ceased to be the only means of conveying the news of the day, and it is they more than anything else that have killed letter-writing as a fine art. But there are other contributory causes. Increased facilities for travel, the invention of the telegraph and the telephone, have all helped to bring persons more easily into contact with one another, and have therefore lessened the necessity for written communication. They have also increased the hurry of life, so that people no longer have time or inclination either or write or to read such crowded letters-sheets as delighted our ancestors.

Thus there is little doubt that letter-writing as an art has almost ceased to exist, and it is improbable that the present century or those that follow will produce such famous letter-writers as have charmed the world in previous ages.

46. PUBLIC SPEAKING

Outline

(1) Definition.

(2) Methods.

(*a*) The appeal to the intellect.

(*b*) The appeal to the emotion,

(3) Different kinds of discourses.
  (*a*) Demonstrative.
  (*b*) Deliberative.
  (*c*) Forensic.

(4) Decline of oratory.

(5) Points to consider in preparing a speech.
  (*a*) Subject-matter.
  (*b*) Arrangement.
  (*c*) Style.
  (*d*) Delivery.

(6) Conclusion.

Essay

Public speaking is not primarily concerned with the search for truth, but rather, with the setting forth of facts or principles, assumed to be true, in such a way as best to appeal to the hearers.

One of two methods of appeal may be adopted, the appeal to the intellect and the appeal to the emotions. By the first method the orator seeks to convince the reason, by the second, to stir the hearts, of his audience; and since people are more ready moved to action through their feelings than through their understandings, the second method is usually the more successful, and therefore the one more generally adopted.

The ancients, who held the art of oratory in high esteem, classified the different kinds of discourses under three headings: the demonstrative or laudatory, the deliberative, and the forensic. All speeches that are mainly concerned with setting forth the excellence of some principle or person, come under the first heading. Milton's *Areopagitica*, and Pliny's panegyric of Trajan are well known examples of this class of speech. Those that deal chiefly with the consideration of various conflicting courses of action, or with criticising the methods or doings of others, come under the second heading. Such are Burke's famous speeches on the treatment of the American colonies. The third comprises pleadings before a court of law, and was, among the Romans, held to be a most important branch of oratory, which attained its perfection in the orations of Cicero.

The importance of oratory has greatly diminished since the invention of printing and the spread of education to all classes of society. But the written word can never make quite the same

appeal to the hearts of men, and it is a great loss to mankind that the serious study of the art of public speaking should have fallen into neglect.

The chief points of importance in preparing a speech are—first, the collection of ideas appropriate to the subject in hand; second, the arrangement of these ideas in the most effective order; third, the expression of them in the most suitable style and language (for this the speaker must consider not only his subject, but also the kind of audience that he is going to address); and fourth, the method of delivery. The last is a very important consideration, for a fine speech badly delivered will often be less effective than a poor speech that is recommended by a well modulated voice, clear enunciation, and suitable gestures.

To sum up, we see that a public speaker should take pains not only to prepare his speech in accordance with the demands of his subject and the character of his audience, but also to qualify himself, by the study of elocution, to produce the greatest possible effect; and, above all, to make himself acquainted with the best means of swaying the emotions and appealing to the hearts of his hearers.

47. THE LIBERTY OF THE PRESS

Outline

(1) Definition.

(2) Censorship of the Press.
  (*a*) License from the King.
  (*b*) The substitution of public opinion.
  (*c*) Legal safeguards.

(3) Survey of the struggle for liberty.
  (*a*) The Star Chamber; *Areopagitica*.
  (*b*) Conflict between Press and Parliament in the 18th century.
  (*c*) Rise of journalism.

(4) Conclusion.

Essay

The liberty of the Press is generally understood to denote the freedom of political writers to express their opinions without fear of restraint or punishment, though it may also bear a wider

meaning, namely, the exemption of writers of every sort from the censorship of official persons.

This wider liberty was a thing undreamt of in early times, when everything that was printed and published had to be licensed by the King: but with the gradual growth of political liberty and of a responsible public opinion, this censorship of the Press was done away with, till, at the present day, the only remnant that remains of it in England is the censorship of stage plays. That public opinion alone, however, is not sufficient to meet all cases, is recognised by the Law, which provides in various ways that liberty shall not degenerate into license. Thus by the law of copyright it protects the rights of the author; by the law of libel it defends the citizen from attacks upon his reputation; by the laws relating to Contempt of Court it ensures that the course of justice shall not be biassed by the Press; and by other laws it punishes the issue of immoral, blasphemous, or seditious publications.

The development of the political liberty of the Press, is however, a matter of far greater importance, and was won only step by step, by hard struggles, involving suffering and persecution to its advocates. It seems strange to us in these days to find that the repression of free discussion was accepted so much as a matter of course in the time of Henry VIII, that even so enlightened a man as Sir Thomas More, in his *Utopia*, or imaginary perfect State, makes it an offence punishable by death for a private citizen to criticize the conduct of the ruling power. The Star Chamber, under the Tudors and the Stuarts, claimed no only absolute control over the Press, but even the right to search the houses of private citizens for unlicensed publications. In 1644 Milton's trumpet-blast of defiance, the *Areopagitica*, or Speech for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing, addressed to the Parliament of his day, stirred people's minds on the subject, but it was not till after the Revolution of 1689, that the licensing Acts were repealed. In the latter half of the 18th century, when the prestige of both Parliament and King had fallen very low, the claim of the Press to free criticism of either, brought about a bitter conflict—associated with the names of John Wilkes and "Junius"—from which the Press, supported by a public opinion that Parliament could not afford to neglect, emerged triumphant.

Briefly we may say that the liberty of the Press has created a sense of responsibility in the people, which has resulted in

an intelligent public opinion—an opinion which has in turn supported this liberty, so long as its aims have been honest and honourable.

48. AMBITION

Outline

(1) Definition.

(2) Different kinds of ambition.
  (*a*) The desire to excel generally.
  (*b*) The desire to excel others.

(3) Dangers of ambition ; it may lead to vices, as—
  (*a*) Envy.
  (*b*) Dishonesty.
  (*c*) False pride.
  (*d*) Self-glorification.

(4) Recapitulation.

Essay

Ambition, which originally meant a going about to solicit votes, a striving for public favour, may be more generally defined as an eagerness to excel.

It may take one of two forms : it may either consist of a desire to make the best of life—to achieve fame by the performance of some great or noble action ; or it may take the form of a desire to outshine some one else. The former is the nobler passion, and has often been the ruling motive of great men's lives. Alexander the Great was so obsessed with it that we are told he wept when he found he had no more worlds to conquer. William IV of Orange, though brought up in an atmosphere of suspicion and repression, dreamt of great achievements ; and every student of history knows how, when hardly more than a boy, he changed the face of Europe in spite of almost overwhelming difficulties, not least among them being his own ill health. Eagerness to outshine others is a common failing of humanity, and such emulation may easily degenerate into jealousy ; but though not in itself a noble passion, it often serves a useful purpose by inspiring a man to make the most of his powers.

On the other hand there are dangers inevitably associated with the indulgence of ambition. For instance, besides its

marked tendency to produce envy or jealousy mentioned above, the wish to rise in the social scale may assume such paramount importance in a man's eyes as to obscure his principles of honour. Thus a small shop-keeper might be so ambitious of success in his trade as to be guilty of petty dishonesties in order to save more money with which to enlarge his business; or a man who had raised himself by his abilities from a lowly station in life might, out of a contemptible pride, yield to the temptation of disowning his own parents, lest he should be despised by his new associates.

The dangers of the higher kind of ambition—the danger of pursuing lofty objects for selfish ends, of desiring self-glorification rather than the good of the people—may be illustrated by two passages from Shakespeare. Wolsey, at his fall, thus acknowledges that his ruin was caused by his ambition :—

> " Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition :
> By that sin fell the angels."

And he adds the significant words, " Love thyself last." Again, Cæsar was murdered by those who feared he would use his popularity to seize absolute power for himself; and Antony, in his funeral oration, thus comments on the accusation :—

> " The noble Brutus
> Hath told you Cæsar was ambitious :
> If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
> And grievously hath Cæsar answered it."

Thus we conclude that ambition, whether to do great deeds, or to outdo our neighbours, is useful in inspiring a man to do his utmost, and to make the best of his abilities; but that it often helps to develope natural tendencies to evil, and may result in the commission of serious crimes.

49. HERO-WORSHIP

Outline

(1) Definition.

(2) A universal sentiment.
  (*a*) In early ages.
  (*b*) In the present day.

(3) Valuable for both nations and individuals.

(4) Examples of heroism in women.
  (*a*) Grace Darling.
  (*b*) Florence Nightingale.
  (*c*) Josephine Butler.

(5) Conclusion.

Essay

Hero-worship is the feeling of reverence and admiration implanted in our nature towards those who are truly great.

It is a sentiment that has always been inherent in man. In the earliest ages of the world the great man was indeed often literally worshipped—regarded as not much less than a god in his life, and deified after his death. As the world has grown older, it has grown less demonstrative; but even in our own day a sort of delirium of enthusiasm for the hero of the day is by no means uncommon. As instances of this may be quoted the reception given to Hobson, the hero of the Spanish-American war; to the piper of Dargai after the Tirah campaign of 1897; and to Lord Roberts after the Boer war.

This excessive emotionalism is nothing to be proud of; but at least it shews that the spirit of hero-worship is not dead, and it would be a dark day for any nation or individual when this could truly be said of it. The critical spirit that can only see faults; the mean spirit that belittles and decries all greatness; the sneering spirit that refuses to believe in greatness at all;—these make greatness impossible for the men or the peoples that entertain them. For to reverence greatness implies the power of appreciating it, and we cannot appreciate anything that is wholly outside our cognisance.

It is not only in war that a man can play the hero, nor only the warrior that calls forth hero-worship. And there are heroines as well as heroes. The names of Grace Darling, the girl who rowed through a raging storm to save a few ship-wrecked people; of Florence Nightingale, who faced the horrors of the Crimea to minister to the wounded; of Josephine Butler, who braved the worse horrors of misrepresentation and obloquy to better the lot of her fellow women; these and many other names that leap to the memory are familiar to and honoured by all.

We have said that admiration for the heroic is implanted in our nature, and that the capacity for this admiration implies

of itself the possibility of greatness. We may therefore be sure that, unless the world falls very low indeed, heroic deeds will continue to be done, and hero-worship to be freely and heartily accorded to the doers.

50. "EXAMPLE IS BETTER THAN PRECEPT."

Outline

(1) Meaning.
(2) Inapplicability, in respect of duties,—
  (*a*) To schoolmasters and their pupils.
  (*b*) To parents and their children.
(3) Applicability, in respect of qualities:—
  (*a*) To the above cases.
  (*b*) To social intercourse.
(4) Illustrations from:—
  (*a*) Warfare.
  (*b*) Religion.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay.

This proverb means that a man may more readily incline people to do what they ought to do, by himself setting them the example of doing it, than by simply telling them what they ought to do.

Like most proverbs, this one is limited in application. It is not, for instance, applicable to the relations between schoolmasters and pupils, nor to the relations between parents and children, with respect to the duties of either pupils or children. In neither of these cases would be either possible or desirable that the preceptors should do more than instruct and command, or that the children should expect to be set an example of receptivity or obedience.

It is however applicable to both the cases just mentioned, in respect of qualities. A child whose parents or teachers are upright, honourable, and unselfish in their conduct, will be more likely to become such himself, from unconsciously imitating them, than from any amount of moral instruction. It is especially applicable to the influence of men and women upon each other in ordinary social intercourse. The man who is always talking

of lofty aims is apt to be set down as a prig, and will certainly have far less influence on the lives around him than the man what silently does the things that the other merely talks about.

In warfare we may see the proverb illustrated. The greatest military commanders have not always been those who have been the greatest strategists, but those who have fired their men with the example of their own courage and daring. The battle of Agincourt, won by an exhausted and starving army, fighting against overwhelming numbers, would have ended very differently had not the troops been inspired by the dauntless spirit of their leader. Many a rout has been turned at the last moment into a victory by the impetuous bravery of a single man.

Again, the religious teachers of the world have generally influenced men more by their lives than by their teachings. This is pathetically illustrated in the case of St. Francis of Assisi, whose lofty ideals proved too high for the age he lived in, so that the Order he founded to propagate them, fell far below them, when his magnetic personality was withdrawn.

We conclude, therefore, that the man who performs some heroic or unselfish deed, does far more to inspire heroism and unselfishness in others, than the man who preaches but does not act.

51. THE RIGHT USE OF MONEY

Outline

(1) Introduction; money a power or talent, carrying with it its peculiar responsibilities.

(2) What to do and to avoid doing.
- (*a*) Shun both extravagance and parsimony.
- (*b*) Live within your income, and lay by something.
- (*c*) Do not lend or borrow.
- (*d*) Do not speculate.
- (*e*) Practise wise, not indiscriminate, almsgiving.

(3) Conclusion: the owner should so use his money that it shall beneficially influence his own character, and be of the greatest good to others.

Essay

Money, like knowledge, is power, giving its possessor the command of the services of others. It is desired to some extent

by all, and necessary, under the present system of exchange, to the maintenance of life. If a man has money he can provide himself with the necessaries, and it may be, with the luxuries, of life; if he has no money, he can obtain neither. Money may also be regarded as a talent, possessed like other talents by some in a greater degree than by others, and also, like other talents, carrying with it its peculiar responsibilities, as being capable of great good, and liable also to great abuse. Even the poor, who, have little money to spend, often put that little to a wrong use, while the rich have almost boundless opportunities of doing good, which are but too frequently neglected. Both rich and poor should formulate for themselves and follow certain rules to guide them in the expenditure of money.

In the first place both extravagance and its contrary, parsimony, should be avoided. It is wrong to spend large sums on dress, on eating, or on expensive amusements, because it is a misuse of the talent placed in our hands. We are to be stewards, disposing of our money for the benefit of others, and not selfishly squandering it on our own pleasures. Moreover, thoughtless extravagance often leads to ruin, and thence to dishonesty and theft. On the other hand we must keep ourselves from falling into the habit of haggling over every trifling purchase, and grudging the expenditure, however neccessary, of the smallest sum. This habit leads to miserliness, which is selfishness under another form; for the mean man and the extravagant man are alike in thinking only of themselves and disregarding the interests of others.

While avoiding both these extremes, we should take care not only to live within our income, but also, if possible, to lay by something for the future. It is well to exercise a due amount of thrift, in order to have something to fall back upon in an emergency and something to live upon in old age.

With regards to loans, it would be well if there were more people who followed the advice of Polonius to his son, "Neither a borrower nor a lender be." Lending money often leads to extortion and oppression, and borrowing is neither very honourable nor very safe. In either case there is always a good deal of uncertainty as to whether the money will ever be repaid.

Speculation on the stock exchange should also be avoided, since it is a form of gambling, and so is the contrary to the interests of the community.

There is yet another wide area to be mentioned in which money plays its part either for good or for evil—that of alms-giving. Charity is doubtless a virtue; but it may, nevertheless under some conditions become almost a vice. Nothing does more harm than indiscriminate charity. It is bad for the giver, bad for the recipient, and worse still for society as a whole. But wise and carefully organised almsgiving, like mercy, "blesses both him who gives and him who takes." This charity has a wide range. It consists not merely in aiding the poor and contributing to hospitals, religious organisations, and benevolent societies, but also, for those who can afford such larger liberality, in gifts of public libraries, parks, or picture galleries, in the endowment of colleges and schools, and in the establishment and furthering of other great philanthropic agencies. He who desires to use his money for the benefit of others will not, in these days, have to search far for the means of doing so.

The good and honourable uses to which money may be put are many and varied, but the underlying principle in all is the same. Its possessor should so use his money that it shall influence his own character for good, and at the same time benefit others in the best possible way.

52. GOOD MANNERS

Outline

(1) The origin and scope of good manners.
  (*a*) They protect us from selfish and thoughtless people.
  (*b*) Good manners and kindness of heart often identical.
  (*c*) Unselfishness the root of good manners.
(2) To avoid social blunders, be unselfish and considerate.
(3) The application of good manners.
  (*a*) The use of etiquette books.
  (*b*) An example of ill manners.
(4) Possible objections to good manners.
  (*a*) Slavish conformity to one code of manners may lead to dulness.
  (*b*) The plea of the "plain man."
  (*c*) The objections answered.

Essay

As laws defend us from the violence of the criminal classes, so good manners protect us from the rudeness of the selfish and the thoughtless. Codes of good manners may differ in different countries, but in all their object is the same—to prevent friction in society and to add to the pleasure and grace of daily life. For, upon examination, it will often be found that good manners and kind actions are one and the same thing. In fact the root of good manners is unselfishness,—to love your neighbour better than yourself, to be indeed a *gentleman* or a *gentlewoman*.

If then we should ever happen to be ignorant of the correct behaviour required in any particular circumstance, we need only ask yourselves what is the considerate and unselfish thing to do, and we are not likely to offend against good manners. This will explain what we call "Nature's ladies" and "Nature's gentlemen, men and women who, although they may have had on socia training, are naturally courteous on account of their unselfishness and constant regard for the feelings of others.

Few are qualified to shine in society, but it is in the power of most men to be agreeable. And the man of good feeling, if he has not been fully instructed in his youth, will not scorn to learn from books of etiquette the ordinary usage of good society; for, although it is no disgrace to be ignorant on such points, it is certainly foolish to be at loss for knowledge that may so easily be acquired. Add to this necessary knowledge of details the possession of an unselfish character, and you are in little danger of making a social blunder. For example, it is a breach of good manners to interrupt another person while he is speaking, however uninterestingly; for to do so is openly to value your own words above his. It is a part of good manners to be a good listener.

It may be objected that the slavish observance of a fixed code of good manners will tend to reduce all social intercourse to a dull and uniform level for (to keep to our example) if bores may not be silenced, how are brilliant and weighty speakers to get a hearing? Others, again, complain of the artificiality of good manners. "Be natural!" urges the self-styled "plain man," who as he boasts, "says what he thinks." But, in spite of these very real dangers, the world's verdict is that, if the general practice of society were to "be natural, and nothing else," social life in the long run would become unbearable. Man, we are

told, is by nature a warlike animal, and the very existence of society would be endangered without the corrective of good manners.

53. SLAVERY

Outline

(1) The prevalence of slavery in ancient civilisations.
  (*a*) Slavery at first meant progress.
  (*b*) Slaves were the workers.
  (*c*) Slaves formed the majority of the population.
  (*d*) Slavery approved by the greatest Greek thinkers.
  (*e*) How it came to decline.

(2) Its conditions and effects.
  (*a*) The slave a mere piece of property.
  (*b*) The harshness of the law towards the slave.
  (*c*) The moral effect on the slave.
  (*d*) The moral effect on the owner.

(3) Its gradual disapearance.
  (*a*) Modified into serfdom:
  (*b*) Serfdom abolished in the 19th century.
  (*c*) Slavery abolished in the United States in 1865.
  (*d*) Africa the last great centre of the slave-trade.

Essay

The instutution of slavery was at first a step forward in civilisation, for in the early ages captives taken in war were killed, and sometimes eaten; but later, as labour was wanted for agriculture, they were kept as slaves. In all the ancient civilisations of which we have any account the greater part of the work was done by slaves, and it was the slaves who made up the greater part of their population. Thus we find that both in Greece and Rome there were three slaves to one free man; and, while the citizens were fighting, the slaves carried on the agriculture and commerce of their masters. The greatest thinkers of Greece approved of the system, and it is not until the second century that we find a few Roman writers disapproving. Doubtless the spread of Christianity began to influence public opinion, and at the same time the more peaceful conditions of the Roman Empire gradually decreased the number of slaves obtainable by war; while the Roman citizen, no longer wanted as a fighter,

could settle down to develop his country, But the abolition of slavery was very slow; and the fact remains that during a considerable part of the world's history the majority of its inhabitants have been slaves.

The slave was a mere piece of property, like on ox or a sheep. He was not allowed a legal marriage, and could be sold away from his wife and children. He could own no property and gain no public distinction; and if his owner wished, he could kill him. The results of such treatment could not fail to be bad, for if you take from men all chances of reward for diligence, and make them entirely dependent on others for their peace and security, you destroy their self-respect; and, losing this, they are sure to degenerate. The effect too, on the slave-owners was equally bad, for the absolute ownership and control of crowds of servile people inevitably leads to laziness, selfishness, cruelty, and immorality. Moreover, the fact that all the work was done by slaves had such a marked effect on the non-wofkers that even to-day the false idea is still held that work is "servile" and a disgrace. Hence, although slavery may have been a necessary step in the progress of the world, we cannot fail to see that its moral effect was pernicious; and, for this reason, it was bound in time to disappear.

But the progress of the world is painfully slow, and the history of slavery is a striking illustration of this. About the ninth century absolute slavery began to be replaced in Eurpoe by serfdom, a modified form of slavery. The conditions of the serf were better than those of the old slave, but they were still bad; and so serfdom was in its turn condemned. Its abolition was an exceedingly slow process, and it was not until the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that the serfs of Europe were all made free men. And still there were slaves. Men who had agreed that it was wrong to enslave members of their own race, still thought they were justified in keeping other races in a state of slavery! It is amazing to remember that the United States of America did not liberate their slaves until 1865, and then only after four years of civil war. And there are slaves still—slaves in millions; and not until the whole civilised world unites to stamp out the terrible slave-trade of Africa is there much hope for the progress of that dark continent.

54. PROCRASTINATION.

Outline

(1) Denfinition ; peculiar force of " to-morrow."
(2) Nature.
  (*a*) Generally physical.
  (*b*) Sometimes intellectual.
(3) Illustration from *Hamlet* of its—
  (*a*) Working.
  (*b*) Effects.
(4) Its evils ; the procrastinator—
  (*a*) Causes delay.
  (*b*) Disorganises business.
  (*c*) Discomposes himself and annoys others.
  (*d*) Cannot be trusted.
(5) Reflections.

Essay

Procrastination is the putting off till to-morrow (*Lat. cras* what ought to be done to-day. It is always a vice, since it is a sin against the sense of duty. The peculiar force of *to-morrow* lies, in the fact that it is always future, and the peculiar disease of the procrastinator is his aversion to the present time as a time for action. He is continually hoping that to-morrow may bring what for him to-day never brings, the right moment—in other words, the impetus he needs, for the defect is in himself, not in this or that time.

This defect is generally akin to laziness, and so in its nature is physical, arising from a weakness of the will, which shows itself in the reluctance to make a necessary bodily effort. Occasionally, however, procrastination is intellectual, and is the result of a state of mental indecision which is quite compatible with strength of will and vigour of action.

Thus in Shakespeare's Hamlet we are shown a man of high intelligence and great determination, who yet again and again turns, at the brink of action, from a task that he feels it to be his duty to accomplish. It is not energy that he lacks ; it is rather that moral and intellectual doubts and scruples lead him perpetually from zeal to indolence, from one postponement to another. And yet, however pardonable Hamlet's procrastina-

tion might seem to be, dire effects follow, effects which we cannot doubt are directly traceable to this shortcoming. Nor is this all; under the influence of this persistent irresolution the character of the man gradually deteriorates; he becomes a mere straw swept along by the tide of circumstance; and so unexpectedly at last does he meet with his own tragic end, that he has barely time to carry out his long-contemplated deed of vengeance.

Procrastination has well been called "the thief of time." The proverb tells us that delays are dangerous, and it often happens that a thing which is not done at the right time cannot be done at all. In a business position, the man who procrastinates causes a confusion of affairs and an accumulation of work which is never finished. He is always behindhand and always in a hurry; his habit is a perpetual source of discomfort to himself and of annoyance to others, in addition to the material loss which it often entails. Such a man moreover cannot be trusted with any business of importance; no one can be sure that he will keep an appointment or fulfil an engagement.

It should be remembered that rarely, if ever, does a task become easier for being deferred on account of its difficulty and since each day makes its own demands, in leaving to-day's work to be done along with to-morrow's we run the risk of failure in both.

55. THE INFLUENCE OF GOOD BOOKS

Outline

(1) The teaching power of good books.

(2) Their indirect influence.
  - (*a*) As a holiday from real life.
  - (*b*) The consequent refreshment to the reader.
  - (*c*) The benefit to his daily work.

(3) Their influence on social life.
  - (*a*) Profiting by the experience of others.
  - (*b*) The lesson of tolerance.

(4) Their influence on the life of a nation.
  - (*a*) Knowledge of history a preparation for statesmanship.
  - (*b*) Without this preparation a statesman may be a danger to his country.

Essay

To read good books is to learn the best that has been thought and said in the world; and the reader who succeeds in acting up to what he knows, above all men stands the best chance of leading a well-ordered and profitable life. Now the best that has been said and thought is the gathered wisdom of all who have lived and learned before us; and, although in our earlier years we may not be able to understand its full value, it is impossible for an intelligent man not to gain some good from it.

And besides the direct influence of good books on the reader, there is an indirect effect on his daily life that is sure to be felt. For when he leaves his reading, he will return to his ordinary occupations a fitter man; his holiday from the real world will send him back to it with renewed zest; he will appreciate it the more for having left it for a time; and his work will, on this account, be more likely to be well done. He will thus be of more practical use both to himself and to any others who may live with him and depend on his exertions.

Again, in his books he has followed the painful struggles of all sorts and conditions of men, and where they have succeeded he may profit by imitating them; where they have failed he may endeavour to avoid their mistakes. So too will he learn a wise tolerance in his conduct towards others; he will not condemn them for words or deeds when he is not perfectly sure that he knows all the facts of the case; for the experience he has gained from his books and the precepts of these his best friends will have taught him that a man may be quite innocent in spite of appearances.

But his reading will have given him experience of matters far more important than the events of private life; it will have taught him the history of nations; and if he should be called upon to decide a serious political question, he will not be unprepared for the task. For by reading he has become, as Bacon says, a full man; his mind is stored with knowledge of how men and nations have acted in the past, and he will thus be in a position to benefit his country by the judgment of a mind trained in the consideration of great national affairs. Without this preparation of reading the man who interferes with politics is apt to be a danger to his country; and it is only when he is prepared in this way that he can with safety be placed in any high political position.

56. WAR

Outline

(1) Causes of War.
  (*a*) Civilised countries attacked by barbarous tribes.
  (*b*) Disputed ownership of territory.
  (*c*) War wilfully brought about by statesmen.
(2) Cost of War.
  (*a*) In soldiers.
  (*b*) In men working to supply armies.
  (*c*) In loss of business in wartime.
  (*d*) In loss of life.
  (*e*) In suffering.
(3) Can war be abolished?
  (*a*) Most people desire its abolition.
  (*b*) Difficulty of general disarmament.
  (*c*) Apparent hopelessness of the task.
(4) Where our hope lies.
  (*a*) Education.
  (*b*) Arbitration.
  (*c*) Religion.

Essay

War is such a terrible thing that it is often asked whether any cause is important enough to justify it. There are instances in which it seems impossible to avoid it, as when a civilised state is attacked by barbarous tribes; but too frequently war is a greater evil than the wrong that it is meant to redress. When great nations go to war, the reason of their quarrel is probably not even understood by nine out of ten of the combatants; and if they were asked individually, "Do you or do you not want to fight this country?" They would answer No. Perhaps the war is to decide which of two countries shall own and govern a certain strip of the earth's surface; or, again, it may be wilfully brought about by a statesman, in order to draw away attention from difficulties in his own country which he cannot settle. But in all cases the reason given by each of the countries is that they are fighting for their rights; and the victors always declare that they have "vindicated their rights," and what this really means is that the world acts upon the principle that "might is right."

Whether or not war is ever right, the whole world is con-

stantly preparing for it. Millions of the healthiest men are taken away from the ordinary work of life to learn to fight, and hundreds of thousands of workers are employed in making arms for them. And in the event of a war the toilers suffer still more, for their work often becomes useless because they are shut off from their markets, as when the American Civil War caused a cotton famine in Lancashire. Add to this the terrible destruction of property, the loss of thousands of strong young men, the enormous expense, and the sufferings of those who lose husbands and sons, and it will be admitted that the cost of war is so great that it should never be undertaken except for the gravest reasons. Indeed, as has been remarked already, many people think that there is no reason whatever strong enough to justify it.

If the opinion of all the civilised people in the world should be known, we should probably find that very few of them really approved of war. Why, then, do wars continue? Why are we always preparing for war? The explanation is that, although all the great nations are becoming more civilised, it is not so very long since they were barbarous. It is a slow matter to civilise men, and it takes still longer for them to understand that, because their minds have changed, their actions ought to change too. It is so easy to go on as we are; it is so difficult to alter the conduct of whole communities. A powerful man might possibly induce his own nation to agree to disband its army, but who will induce all the other nations to agree to abandon theirs? The task is so gigantic that it seems sometimes impossible that war will ever cease.

But although the chances of putting an end to warfare seem so small, we must still do all we can to try to stop it. Education will help us; for, as men more and more learn from history the horrors and the wastefulness of war, so will they become increasingly opposed to it; and when people reach a certain stage of education they generally elect their political representatives. In this way the opinions of the greater number decide what a country shall do; and we may therefore hope that some day all civilised people will decide to have no more war. When this happens, we shall probably have Arbitration in its place; and already we find that efforts are being made by different "Peace Societies" to get the disputes of nations settles by this method. And we must not forget too that true religion forbids warfare, and bids its followers never to return blow for blow, but rather good for evil. It is this spirit which will finally make war impossible.

57. THE TRUE END OF EDUCATION

Outline

(1) The development of latent faculties.

(2) Education teaches men their vocation, and so makes them useful and happy; illustration, Wordsworth.

(3) It teaches self-control.

(4) It gives a high ideal, inculcating humility and tolerance.

Essay

The true end of education is the development of those faculties that are dormant in mankind. The baby asks for physical comforts alone, but the child begins to understand the difference between right and wrong, ugliness and beauty. True education, then, teaches the child to prefer the good and the beautiful. Thus it developes the learners and instructs them how to develope themselves.

A great English writer, Ruskin, has said that the true end of all education should be to teach the young the work for which they are fitted and to enable them to carry out that work. In so doing they become useful citizens, for everyone who is doing his right work is of use in the would and brings happiness to himself and those around him. The love of work is the secret of success, and it is what every nation should strive to teach those who are to be its citizens.

Men read the lives of great ones in art and literature to find what master mind instructed them and what were the influences that aided their genius. Thus of the poet Wordsworth they learn that the beautiful scenery of Cumberland and the freedom he enjoyed to roam amid its lakes and mountains became his first source of inspiration. They taught the boy his vocation, and this is what education should strive to do for us all, since none are thrown into the world by chance, but all have their part to play.

It would nevertheless be unwise if in youth each could choose that which pleased him, for the man who is to succeed must be no idle pleasure-lover, but must learn self-control and the power of applying his attention to difficult tasks. If he has been taught this by the time he is a man, he has been taught much, for he is now capable of educating himself. Knowing what is the

right thing for him, he will pursue it in spite of all difficulties, and will continue to do so through life, for such a man's education never stops, but is always striving after perfection.

Education, then, has for its aim to set this high ideal before men, so that they may be humble, teachable, and open-minded, and may learn the great truth conveyed by Tennyson's lines—

> " Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,
> These three alone lead life to sovereign power."

58. RESENTMENT

Outline

(1) Defined ; two limitations.
(2) Compared with anger or indignation.
(3) Sometimes justifiable.
(4) Felt more readily by some than by others.
(5) How to guard against it.

Essay

In its most general sense resentment is the feeling of indignation excited by a sense of injury done to one's self or one's friends. Usually, however, this definition has two limitations. Resentment is a term more often ascribed to the feeling resulting from a small than from a serious injury. Thus a man might resent a slight or a blow, but he could not properly be said to resent his brother's murder. He would be enraged or exasperated at it. Again resentment is more often used of the sense of anger at an injury felt by a person who is not in a position to retaliate, than of the same sense of anger felt by a person in authority. Thus we might speak of a servant's resenting his master's disbelief in his honesty ; whereas we should hardly invert the statement and say that the master resented his servant's disbelief in his honesty, but rather that he was indignant or offended at his conduct.

Thus we see that resentment is a state of mind closely allied to anger, but for the most part without its redeeming features. Anger or indignation at wrong done to others may even be a noble passion, but resentment is felt only for wrongs done to ourselves or our associates. Anger blazes forth at terrible

injuries, and may rebuke and bring conviction to the trembling offender; resentment smoulders inwardly at petty delinquencies, and is prone to cloud the mind of him who feels it. Johnson indeed defines resentment as "a union of sorrow and malignity."

This quality, however, is not necessarily or always a bad one: we are justified, for instance, in resenting an unwarrantable intrusion upon our privacy; and if a man's honour or property is wantonly assailed, he is right in resenting the wrong done him.

Peoples vary very much in temperament, and perhaps in nothing so much as in their passions. Some are like tinder-boxes, slow to be moved to anger, but flashing out fiercely when roused, though easily pacified again. Such natures are almost incapable of resentment. On the other hand there are some who are always looking out for injuries and offences, and who find them easily enough where none are meant. People of this disposition are naturally resentful.

If we desire to guard against this feeling, we should be careful to cultivate a lofty and generous habit of mind, always ready to think the best of others' motives, and not be too greatly concerned about our own dignity and importance.

59. "LOOK BEFORE YOU LEAP"

Outline

(1) Meaning.

(2) The truth of the proverb; illustrated—
  (*a*) Literally.
  (*b*) Figuratively.

(3) Conclusion.

Essay

The meaning of this proverb is that one should never undertake anything hurriedly and without first considering whether one is able to carry it through. The complete form of the saying appears to have been "Look before you leap, for snakes among sweet flowers do creep," but the latter part is now seldom or never quoted. It indicates that what the proverb specially emphasises is the lurking danger that attends upon rash and hasty action.

The reasonableness of the proverb is evident in both its literal and figurative sense; and it is a proverb that is oftener than most others quoted in its literal sense.

Of its literal truth a good illustration is the following. A dog that was unused to houses, had been taken to an upper storey room, and while there it heard its master's voice on the lawn outside. Like a flash it sprang out of the window, and must have been considerably astonished to find itself falling through the air. Fortunately, though it was badly shaken, no bones were broken; but such good fortune cannot often be counted upon.

A similar impulsive rush to achieve some object without considering the obstacles in the way has brought many a career to ruin. A wise caution that calculates difficulties, and foresees the best means of overcoming them is necessary to real success in any path of life. There must of course be moderation in all things; excessive caution may delay the commencement of a business till it is useless to commence it at all; but examples of harmful rashness are legion. There are, scattered over the country, large and often half-ruined houses known by the name of So and-so's "folly," which have either been begun and then abandoned for lack of means to finish them, or have involved their owners in bankruptcy by the time they were finished. Both cases are examples of how people will foolishly rush into expenditure without considering whether they can afford it.

Thus it is plain that in any undertaking it is necessary to use forethought and judgment, lest we involve ourselves in unforeseen difficulties from which we may find it impossible to extricate ourselves.

60. THE VALUE IN LIFE OF A SENSE OF HUMOUR

Outline

(1) Definition.
(2) Different kinds of people.
  (*a*) The despondent.
  (*b*) The over-sanguine.
  (*c*) Those with a sense of humour.
(3) Its advantages.
  (*a*) It helps a man to keep his temper.
  (*b*) It enables him to bear annoyances and trials.
  (*c*) It gives him discernment and sympathy.

(4) Its value to—
  (*a*) Those who work under others.
  (*b*) Those who minister to the poor and degraded.
  (*c*) Those in high places.
(5) It prevents errors of judgment or action.
(6) Conclusion.

Essay

A sense of humour is that faculty of imagination which enables a man to see the ludicrous aspects of common events or notions.

There are some people who always look on the dark side of everything. In contemplating the past, they feel that nothing has gone right; in dealing with the present, they think everything is against them; in looking into the future, they expect the worst. Such people are a burden not only to themselves but to all about them. Others are light-hearted and careless, always expecting something to turn up, or someone to do something for them in all emergencies. Such people may find themselves pleasant company enough, but are hardly less irritating and troublesome to their neighbours than the pessimists described above. Between these extremes are those who are blest with a sense of humour, men who can take life seriously enough if need be, but who yet can find relief in the most trying situations by being alive to their humorous side.

Thus a sense of humour will help a man to keep his temper during an unpleasant interview; it will prevent him from being irritated by petty persecutions; and it will enable him to bear not only trivial annoyances but even serious troubles with cheerfulness. For a sense of humour carries with it a clear insight into the inner values of things, and therefore assures to its possessor a true discernment and a sympathetic mind. All these qualities are of the greatest advantage to a man in his journey through life.

There are three classes of persons to whom a sense of humour is particularly valuable; to the able man working under someone less capable than himself, or under someone who dislikes him; to the clergyman or the missionary ministering to poor and degraded people, where the prospect of effecting an improvement must often seem dark indeed; and lastly to all who are in high places, where a clear judgment of men and things, and a capacity for keeping cool-headed and not taking offence are especially needful.

The possession of a sense of humour, too, will often prevent a man from forming a wrong judgment or taking a wrong step. For he who has this sense is able not only to view a matter from all sides, but to " see himself as others see him " ; and this will often save him from blundering into an absurd or untenable position.

Like other faculties, the sense of humour is innate, but it is also to some extent capable of cultivation ; and enough has been said to show that the possession of so valuable a quality will well reward the pursuit of all.

IV EXPOSITORY ESSAYS

61. PHOTOGRAPHY

Outline

(1) Definition.
(2) Materials.
    (*a*) Camera.
    (*b*) Lens.
    (*c*) Sensitive plate.
(3) Improvements.
(4) The Cinematograph.
(5) Use in astronomy.
(6) Conclusion.

Essay

Photography is the art of producing pictures by means of the action of light on a properly sensitised plate.

The most important part of the necessary apparatus is a dark box, called the camera, with a lens attached in such a way as to throw on a glass screen at the back a sharply defined image of the thing to be photographed. When the object is properly focussed, that is, when, by altering the position of the lens, its image is made as clear as possible, a sensitised plate is put in place of the glass to receive the impression. The process by which this impression is afterwards made permanent is called "fixing" the photograph.

The excellence of the photograph clearly depends on several things: chiefly on the lens, the sensitiveness of the plate, and the subsequent process of development. All these have been the subject of much study for years past, and great improvements have been made in them all. The lens is important as affecting the clearness of the picture thrown on the screen, and many different kinds have been invented with a view to increasing this clearness without distorting the picture. The sensitiveness of the plate determines the length of exposure, and it is evident that a photograph of animate objects will be the more life-like the less time is spent in the process of taking it. In the early days of

photography, several minutes were necessary for a sufficient impression to be made, but the discovery of more sensitive media has now made it possible to take a photograph in the fraction of a second.

This discovery has introduced a new class of photograph called the cinematograph. This consists of a series of photographs of moving scenes taken in such rapid succession, that every phase of every movement is photographed. These photographs are then passed before the eye in succession at the same rate at which they were taken, so that the moving scene appears as it actually took place.

One important service that photography has rendered to science must not be overlooked. It lies in the realm of astronomy. For it has been found that the sensitive plate can receive impressions from stars whose light is too faint to be seen by the most powerful telescope. Moreover it would be hard to say how much astronomers owe to the fact that they can by means of photography secure permanent records of phenomena that are too transitory to be properly studied as they take place.

In fact photography lays us all under an obligation. Happy events of the past, scenes we have visited and friends we have known, are recalled to us by its aid. It is no wonder that with the cheapening of material, the passion for it grows, till the camera is becoming as much part of the necessary equipment of the tourist as the walking-stick or the knapsack.

62. AIR

Outline

(1) Composition of pure air.
  (*a*) Oxygen; its peculiarity.
  (*b*) Nitrogen.
(2) Respiration.
  (*a*) Oxygen unites with other substances to create warmth.
  (*b*) Oxygen in this process changes into carbonic acid gas.
(3) Importance of fresh air.
  (*a*) Necessary to life.
  (*b*) Insufficiency of it causes ill health; hence the Factory Acts.

(4) The supply of oxygen is kept up by—
  (*a*) The vegetable world.
  (*b*) The winds.
(5) Conclusion.

Essay

The atmosphere that surrounds our earth is composed of a mixture of two gases, nitrogen and oxygen. They are mingled in the proportion of four parts of nitrogen to one of oxygen. This mixture is called air, and these two gases are the only constituents of pure air, though water vapour and carbonic acid gas are both usually found, in varying amounts, in the atmosphere. The peculiar quality of oxygen is to combine with other substances and produce heat. This process of combination with oxygen is called burning, and if the air were composed only of oxygen, this burning would go on too quickly.

When we breathe air into our lungs the oxygen unites with the substances we have taken into our bodies in the form of food and creates warmth. When we take any violent exercise, we breathe more quickly and deeply and consequently the burning process goes on more rapidly, with the result that we become hotter than usual. But during the process of breathing, the oxygen which we take into our lungs is combined with carbon, and transformed into a poisonous gas called carbonic acid gas, which the lungs reject. Thus we are continually drawing in oxygen into our lungs, and sending out carbonic acid gas.

We see then that if we sit in a closed room, we soon use up all the oxygen in the air of the room, and fill it instead with carbonic acid gas. As we cannot live without oxygen, we should then die, and the reason why people do not die from sitting in closed rooms, is that there are always some cracks or holes through which fresh air penetrates from outside. But though people seldom die from sitting in closed rooms, the want of oxygen makes them feeble and sickly, and does them serious harm. It is evident that if there are a great many people in the room, they use up the oxygen much faster than one person would do; hence workers in factories often suffered from ill health for lack of sufficient air. Now, however, the Factory Acts of 1889 compel employers to provide 600 cubic feet of fresh air every hour for each worker.

But the question may be asked, if people are continually changing the oxygen in the air into carbonic acid gas, how is it

that the oxygen is not used up? The answer is that though the animal world is thus constituted, the vegetable world reverses the process; for plants absorb carbonic acid gas, and give it out again in the form of oxygen. This is one reason why it is so much healthier to live in the country than in the town, because in the former plant life is so much more abundant. But even in the most crowded towns the winds that are always blowing are doing the work of carrying away the poisoned air, and bringing fresh air from the county to take its place.

Thus we see that fresh air is vital to our existence because of our need of oxygen, and the supply of oxygen is kept up for us by vegetable life. Hence it is our duty to take care that we obtain as much of it as possible, both by keeping windows constantly open, and by taking every opportunity of going into the country.

63. THE HISTORICAL NOVEL

Outline

(1) Definition; two classes of historical novels.
(2) Historical accuracy.
(3) Scott the founder of the historical novel; examples.
(4) His successors.
(5) Reflections; ought fiction and history to be intermingled?

Essay

The historical novel is a story that is based upon the career of some well-known historical person or upon some great historical event. Many of the characters and incidents may be purely fictitious, but they have a backgrround of historical truth. In some historical novels, as in Kingsley's *Hypatia*, the history occupies the chief place; in others, as in Scott's *Quentin Durward*, the main actors and events are fictitious; they are only placed, as it were, in a historical atmosphere.

The writer of a historical novel, if he aims at historical accuracy, would seem to have a harder task than the writer of pure fiction. For he has to curb his imagination and bind himself down to fact; and at the same time so mingle the real and the imaginative that they shall form a perfect whole. If, on the

other hand, discarding historical accuracy, he attributes to history the productions of his own brain, fact and fiction are apt to become so confused, that it is impossible for the ordinary reader to distuinguish between them. Such a novel may be interesting, but it possesses little historical value.

Sir Walter Scott was the founder of the historical novel. Of the twenty-seven novels of the Waverely series nineteen are historical. Thus *Waverley* pictures the period of the Jacobite rebellion of 1745; *The Legend of Montrose* deals with the operations of the royalists under Montrose in the Highlands in 1645-46; *Old Mortality* describes the rebellion of the Scottish Covenanters; *Ivanhoe* introduces us to King John and Richard Cœur de Lion; while *Kenilworth* gives us a vivid delineation of Queen Elizabeth and her favourite, the Earl of Leicester.

Scott's most famous successors are Kingsley and Bulwer Lytton. To the former we owe *Hypatia*, *Hereward the Wake*, and *Westward Ho*; to the latter *Rienzi*, *Harold*, and *The Last of the Barons*. Thackeray in his *Esmond* and *The Virginians*, and Dickens in his *Barnaby Rudge* and *Tale of two Cities*, introduce historical characters or events, but the main outlines of the stories are wholly fictitious.

Among more modern historical novels may be mentioned Disraeli's *Lothair*, Seton Merriman's *Flotsam*, Stanley Weyman's *The Story of Francis Cludde*, Walter Besant's *By Celia's Arbour*, Charles Reade's *The Cloister and the Hearth*, and Eden Phillpot's *The American Prisoner*.

The question whether fiction and history ought to be intermingled, as they are in historical novels, may be looked at from two points of view, *viz.*, from that of art on the one hand and of utility on the other. There can be no doubt that the historical novel may be a work of true art, just as much as the historical drama or the historical epic; but on the point of utility it is not quite so easy to decide. We may, however, come to the conclusion that the confusion between fact and fiction referred to above as liable to be produced in the reader's mind by the historical novel, is more than compensated by the additional interest and vividness imparted to historical events by their being represented in the picturesque garb of fiction.

64. STRIKES AND BOYCOTTING

Outline

(1) A strike.
(2) Strikes the (modern) offspring of trade unions; not like the old peasant revolts.
(3) Causes of strikes; their decrease.
(4) Employers' federations; their conferences with the unions.
(5) Attempts to control strikes by—
  (*a*) Legislation.
  (*b*) Conciliation Boards.
(6) Boycotting.
  (*a*) Origin of the term.
  (*b*) Explanation of the system.
  (*c*) Its cruelty.

Essay

When a body of workers in some particular trade agree together to cease work in order to compel their employer to accede to some demand they make upon him, such a cessation of work is called a "strike."

It is plain that a strike is only possible where the workmen are organised, and so capable of concerted action. Hence it is no surprise to find that strikes have taken place only since the formation of trade unions from 1825 onwards, and therefore belong wholly to modern history. It is true that in earlier times the peasants on some estate, or even over a large part of the country, would rise in revolt against the hardships of their lot; but such undisciplined outbursts have little in common with the regular strikes of the present day.

The most usual cause of dispute is the question of wages; other causes are the length of the working hours and the conditions under which the work is carried on. From the first formation of trade unions, all questions affecting the livelihood and comfort of their members have been their chief concern. And since the trade unions were looked upon with suspicion and dislike by those in authority, and even at first prosecuted as illegal under the Conspiracy Acts, strikes were their only effective weapon for enforcing their demands. These unions have survived to become a power in the land, and have done much towards ameliorating the condition of the workmen. As the unions

increased in power and influence, employers became increasingly more reasonable in considering the demands of their men, with the result that there has been, under normal conditions, a gradual decrease in the number of strikes.

This decrease has been still greater since the formation of the employers' federations; or rather since these federations have consented to treat with the trade unions on equal terms. These conferences have usually induced a more amicable spirit in the contending parties and resulted in agreements which lessen the liability of strikes. Unfortunately the trade unions have not always been strong enough to compel their members to abide by their decisions; and in several instances the workers have gone on strike in defiance of their official leaders. Such an unwise policy, if persisted in, may end in the destruction of trade unionism.

Since strikes involve financial loss to the community, as well as to the employers and their men, attempts have been made by various Parliaments to control them by legislation, and, if possible, to prevent their occurrence. New Zealand and New South Wales have, since 1894, taken the drastic step of compelling the workers and the employers in each trade to form a Conciliation Board, to which all disputes are to be submitted, and the award of which is to be accepted by both parties under pain of imprisonment. Strikes are thus made illegal. No other countries have gone as far as this, but in England and in America Conciliation Boards have been formed to which disputes can be submitted, if both parties agree to the proceeding.

Boycotting is so called from the name of its first victim, Captain Boycott. It was instituted by the Irish leader, Parnell, in 1880, to further his scheme of ridding Ireland of English or Anglicised landlords, and making the peasants owners of the soil. Boycotting has been briefly defined as "exclusive dealing," and is a kind of strike directed by the community against some individual whom they wish to punish or coerce. A man who was placed under this ban was never spoken to by his neighbours, nothing was allowed to be sold to him or bought from him, no one was permitted to work for him or serve him in any way, his children were forbidden the village school, and he himself anathematised and driven from church by the village priest. The cruelty involved in this system has condemned it in the eyes of public opinion and brought it within the purview of the law. It was proscribed by the Pope in 1888.

65. THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

Outline

(1) Description; special functions.
(2) Opening of Session.
(3) Procedure.
    (*a*) Questions.
    (*b*) Debates.
    (*c*) Divisions.
(4) Committees.
    (*a*) Of the whole house.
    (*b*) Select Committees.
(5) Petitions; conclusion.

Essay

The House of Commons is one of the three Estates of the Realm by which England is governed. It shares with the House of Lords the power of introducing bills, but, being composed of members elected by the people, it possesses the exclusive constitutional right of dealing with finance, both as regards taxation and the voting of supplies for the public service.

When the House of Commons has been elected, the date of meeting is appointed by royal proclamation. The first duty of the Commons is to elect a Speaker or chairman, who is confirmed in his appointment by royal assent; the members are then sworn in, and the House is thus duly constituted. The business that is to be laid before the House during the session is announced in "the King's Speech," which is sometimes delivered by the King in person, sometimes by a representative. The Speech having been replied to by an Address, the serious business of the session then begins.

First, Questions by individual members on matters that call for enquiry or that are open to criticism are replied to by the Government.

Next, the motions that are down on the Orders for the Day, are taken in turn, and put as questions to the House by the Speaker. The members then proceed to debate on the motion itself, and on any amendments that may have been proposed. A members who desires to speak, rises in his place, and if two or more rise at the same times, the Speaker decides which shall be permitted to speak first. A member may speak only once on

any one motion. At the conclusion of the debate, unless the motion is withdrawn or agreed to, the members vote upon it; this is called a Division. On either side of the House is a lobby, and those who wish to vote for the motion pass into the right hand one, those against it into the left. If the voting is equal, the Speaker gives the casting vote.

In order to cope with large amount of business that the House has necessarily to deal with, Committees are formed to consider special matters. These are of two kinds: first, committees of the whole House, which are presided over by a chairman who sits in the clerk's chair; and secondly, select committees, which are appointed by the House from among its members. The House goes into committee to discuss the details of the bills before it, and the chief difference of procedure in committee is that members may speak as often as they please on any motion. The House forms itself into a special committee, called the Committee of Supply, when it deals with the estimates for Government salaries and other payments for public service; and into another, called the Committee of Ways and Means, when it has to decide on the means of obtaining the money needed for these supplies. Once a year the Chancellor of the Exchequer lays before this committee his proposals for obtaining this money by taxation or otherwise; these proposals are called the "Budget." When a measure before the House needs more enquiry and consideration than the whole House can conveniently give to it, it is referred to a Select Committee, which reports its investigations to the whole body.

Besides making laws for the nation, Parliament receives petitions, and is bound to consider them with a view to redressing the grievances of the people. For the adequate performance of its varied functions, the House of Commons needs to be guided by able and patriotic statesmen, and to be composed of men that fully recognise the duties and responsibilities of their high position.

66. THE POSTAL SYSTEM

Outline

(1) Derivation of "post."
(2) Development of the postal system.
  (*a*) By the Hanse towns in 13th century.
  (*b*) Edward I.'s military posts.

(*c*) Regular posts in 1635.
(*d*) By mail-coaches.
(*e*) By railways.
(*f*) By aircraft.

(3) The penny Post.
(*a*) When introduced,
(*b*) Previous postal charges ; illustration.
(*c*) Extension abroad.

(4) The Postal Union.

(5) Post-office undertakings.
(*a*) Money Orders.
(*b*) Savings banks.
(*c*) Parcel post.
(*d*) Telegraph and telephone departments.
(*e*) Wireless telegraphy.

(6) Conclusion.

Essay

The word " post " comes from the Latin *positum*, meaning " placed " or " fixed," and has acquired its present-day meaning from the fixed points on the roads throughout the Roman Empire, at which were stationed couriers to convey despatches to Rome.

The first letter-post we hear of, in European history, was organised amongst the Hanse towns early in the 13th century. It was a century later that regular posts were established in England, but even then they were chiefly used to convey King Edward I.'s despatches from his Scottish wars ; and it was not till 1635 that a regular letter-post for ordinary citizens was established. It was declared a Govermnent monopoly ; and, though various attempts have been made at different times by private individuals to institute letter-carrying businesses on their own account, they have always been speedily suppressed. The employment of mail-coaches in 1784 marks an important advance in the history of the postal system, while the introduction of railways may be said to have revolutionised it. The first mails to go by rail were those between Liverpool and Manchester in 1830. Letters are now sometimes dispatched by air-craft, and this method of carriage is capable of considerable development.

The introduction of the Penny Post in 1840 by Sir Rowland Hill met with strenuous opposition at first, but proved not

only of enormous benefit to all classes of society, but also a great financial success. When we remember that previously no letter could be despatched for less than 4d. and that for a distance of only 15 miles, we can realise somewhat the importance of the change. Adhesive stamps, too, had not been invented, and the postage was paid by the receiver of the letter. The story goes that what first suggested penny postage to Sir Rowland Hill was the following occurrence. As he was walking one day down a village street, he saw an old woman take a letter from the postman, look at the envelope, and, too poor apparently to pay the fee, return the letter to him. Being sorry for her, he hastened after the departing postman, paid a shilling for the letter, and presented it to the woman. She thanked him, but said he need not have taken the trouble, as there was nothing inside the envelope. She then explained that her son had gone to the north, and since it was impossible for her to afford a shilling for postage, they had arranged between them that as long as all was well with him, he should direct weekly to her an empty envelope! In 1901 penny postage for the whole British Empire was introduced, and in 1908 penny postage to the United States.

An international conference was held at Berne in 1874 to supervise the conditions of letter-carrying between different countries; and all those countries that agreed to the suggestions of the conference were included in a Postal Union. All the countries of Europe, the United States of America, and British India, were the original members of this Union; but most other nations have since joined it, Abyssinia in 1908 being the latest adherent.

The post-office has added many different undertakings to its original one of letter-carrying. In 1838, postal and money orders were first officially issued; in 1861, the post-office savings bank was instituted; in 1882, the parcel post was started. Not very long after the invention of the telegraph, it was made a department of the post-office; and this, along with the telephone, is one of the few departments that have been, and are still, worked at a considerable loss to the revenue. In 1909, eight wireless telegraphy stations were taken over by the Post-office.

We have said enough to show the many and far-reaching activities of the Post-office. Probably few citizens, receiving their letters two or three times a day as a matter of course, reflect

on the enormous amount of work involved in the collection and distribution of the vast numbers of letters—amounting to nearly ten million daily in the United Kingdom alone—that pass through the hands of the postal authorities.

67. ANCIENT AND MODERN WARFARE

Outline

(1) Difference between them owing to the use of gunpowder.
(2) Ancient weapons used—
  (*a*) In Homeric battles.
  (*b*) In Classical times.
  (*c*) By ancient Britons.
  (*d*) By Saxons and Normans.
(3) Personal valour neutralized by rifles and artillery.
(4) Modern warfare based on strategy.
(5) Decreased deadliness of modern warfare; explanation.

Essay

The difference between ancient and modern warfare is so great, that they hardly seem to belong to the same category. This immense difference has been brought about by the invention of gunpowder and the consequent introduction of various forms of artillery instead of the ancient weapons for fighting at a distance.

Of these the chief are the bow and arrow and the spear or javelin, which were and are found in use among all primitive peoples. In the Homeric battles the spear and the sword seem to have been principally used. The hero went to battle girt with his sword, and carrying two spears, which he hurled in succession at his foe, and then closed with him sword in hand. Sometimes the spear, instead of being hurled, was used as a pike, as at the close of the last great fight between Achilles and Hector. In the later days of the Classical period many elaborate engines of war were devised: the battering ram, much used by Alexander the Great; various forms of catapult for hurling both stones and spears; a moveable tower, often many stories high, containing all sorts of battering and hurling appliances; spiked balls, which were thrown in front of the enemy's cavalry: and sharp stakes placed in lightly-covered pits, such as in later times Bruce used with such effect at Bannockburn.

Chariots with long scythes attached to the spokes of the wheels were used by the ancient Belgians and Britons. The chief weapons of the Saxons and the Normans were the sword, the lance, the mace, and the battle-axe; while the English archers of the 13th and 14th centuries were famous throughout Europe.

Since, with such instruments of warfare as these, the fighting was necessarily hand to hand or at fairly close quarters, it follows that personal valour was the most important agent in deciding a battle. With the invention of rifles and artillery all this was changed, battles were fought at a distance, and the personal element was largely done away with. The Elizabethan poet, Samuel Daniel, thus laments over this aspect of the matter:—

> " For by this stratagem, they shall confound
> All th' ancient form and discipline of war:
> Alter their camps, alter their fights, their ground,
> Daunt mighty spirits, prowess and manhood mar.
> For basest cowards from afar shall wound
> The most courageous, forced to fight afar:
> Valour wrapped up in smoke, as in the night,
> Shall perish without witness, without sight."

With every fresh improvement in artillery, the range of guns has increased, and with it the distances that separate the combatants. In modern warfare, the chief responsiblity rests with the commander who directs the operations; for the results of the battle depends more upon his disposal of his forces than upon the courage of his troops. In modern battles the men sometimes hardly see the enemy, but simply shoot in the direction whence they see the enemy's fire coming.

One at first surprising difference between ancient and modern warfare may be noted: *viz.* that in proportion to the numbers engaged (and it must be remembered that a modern far exceeds an ancient army in size), though the deadliness of the weapons used has increased, the loss of life in battle has decreased. It appears that hand-to-hand fighting, in which archers and spearmen marked and picked off their men, was really more fatal to those concerned, than the distant contests " wrapped up in smoke " of modern times. The reason is that, as has been remarked above, much now depends upon strategy, and hence when once a general has found himself completely out-manoeuvred, he recognises that further fighting is useless. A modern battle is never fought, as the old battles were, " to the bitter end."

68. THE CENSUS

Outline

(1) Definition.
(2) History.
  (*a*) In Roman times.
  (*b*) In the Middle Ages.
  (*c*) In modern times.
(3) Methods.
(4) Usefulness for social reforms.

Essay

The "census" is the name given in modern times to the enumeration of the people of any country, together with various facts about them, such as, age, sex, occupation, etc.

The name comes to us from Roman times, when certain of the functions of a Roman official, called the censor, were included under the title of the census. One of these functions was the enumeration of the people with a view to taxation. Thus these statistics corresponded more to the Domesday Book of William I. than to the census of to-day.

In the days of feudalism the word came to mean simply taxation, without any corresponding idea of enumeration. Indeed the numbering of the people seems to have been an idea wholly foreign to the thoughts of the Middle Ages, and even down to modern times no serious attempt was made to discover the exact population of any country. Historians and geographers had to content themselves with vague, general estimates.

When, however, the United States of America won their independence from Great Britain towards the close of the 18th century, it became a political necessity for them to have statistics of the population in each State. We therefore find the first Congress prescribing a ten-yearly census, of which the first was taken in 1790. Great Britain followed the example of America in 1801.

Various methods were tried, in order to arrive at the most satisfactory results. At first, classification according to the different trades and occupations was attempted; then classification under townships and parishes. By degrees the machinery for obtaining and arranging information has become perfected, so that at the present date the census gives the numbers and

ages of the people engaged in any trade, the number of inhabitants to any given area, the number of people suffering from various physical defects, and other items of valuable information.

These statistics are useful in many ways: to those occupied with the amelioration of the condition of the poor, by providing them with the means of calculating the average number of inhabitants to each house in the poorer districts; to those concerned with the general health of the nation, by indicating the average length of life in the various trades. This latter is also useful for life insurance purposes. These statistics help to make it clear that the overcrowding of the towns, coupled with the depopulation of the rural districts, is one of the vital questions of the time. In the English census of 1911 provision for the first time was made for obtaining information from married people as to the duration of the marriage and the number of the children. It would indeed be difficult to define the limits of the usefulness of the census, or to say what parts of our complex national life may not be illuminated by the results obtained from this stringent and far-reaching enquiry into the number and condition of the people.

69. DIRECT AND INDIRECT TAXATION

Outline

(1) Source of State revenue:—
  (*a*) Crown lands.
  (*b*) Taxes.
(2) Direct and indirect taxes defined.
(3) Examples of direct taxes; income tax.
(4) Examples of indirect taxes:—
  (*a*) Excise and customs.
  (*b*) Stamp duties.
(5) This classification not always accurate; examples:—
  (*a*) A tax indirect in England and direct in France.
  (*b*) Income tax on Joint Stock Companies.
  (*c*) A direct tax becoming indirect.
  (*d*) An indirect tax becoming direct.
(6) Its convenience and universal adoption.

Essay

The Government of a country, it is plain, must have money to carry on the affairs of the nation. In old times this money was principally obtained from lands belonging to the king, and a few of these Crown Lands, as they are called, still remain in most of the countries of Europe. These revenues were, however, never quite sufficient, especially in time of war; and the additional money required was obtained by compelling all citizens to contribute something towards the public purse. These compulsory contributions are called taxes. It is from these that in modern times, in which the Crown Lands have greatly diminished and the expenditure of the country enormously increased, the principal revenues of the State are derived.

These taxes are of many different kinds, but they are usually classified under two headings, direct and indirect. A direct tax is one that is wholly paid by the person on whom it is levied. An indirect tax is one that is paid by a person who does not bear the burden of it, but charges it to others, who again may pass on the charge.

The income tax is the standard type of the direct tax. Every one whose income is over a certain amount has to pay a certain proportion of it to the Government. France has several other taxes that come under this heading; as the land tax, the furniture tax, and the door and window tax.

Chief among the indirect taxes are the excise and customs duties on articles of food, and the stamp revenues. Excise duties are charged on articles of home manufacture, while customs are charged on those imported from abroad. Alcoholic beverages are practically the only articles of consumption excised in England. Tobacco, sugar, tea, coffee, and cocoa are the articles most commonly subjected to customs duties. In all these it is clear that the manufacturer or the importer, in reckoning the price at which to sell his goods, will add to what he thinks a fair return for them the amount of duty he has to pay, thus passing on the tax to the consumer. All legal documents and many trade transactions have to be made valid by affixing a stamp of a certain value. This constitutes the stamp revenue, and the tax will be passed on by the person who pays it to those for whom he is doing the business.

This division into direct and indirect taxation is a somewhat arbitrary one, and it is difficult to say under which heading some

taxes are to be placed. Thus in England licenses for trading are reckoned as indirect, whilst in France they are included amongst the direct. Again, in certain special instances the most direct tax may become indirect. In the case of a joint stock company, for example, the company pays its income tax, and then passes it on, by deducting the amount from the dividends paid to the share-holders. On the other hand, taxes classed as indirect may, through force of circumstances, become direct. Thus, when in 1894, the beer duty in England was increased by six pence a barrel the price of beer did not rise, because the sum was too small to divide amongst the number of pints in the barrel. Again in Italy, when a tax was imposed on grinding corn the millers in a small way of business, being unable to meet it, gave up their trade, which thus fell into the hands of the larger millers; and they preferred to pay the tax themselves out of these increased profits rather than put up the price of corn. In both these cases the tax was paid directly by the manufacturers.

But this division, if somewhat arbitrary, is very convenient. After all, any classification in so complex a subject must necessarily be imperfect, and this one has so long been accepted by State Exchequers and framers of Budgets and is so prominent in all "Tariff Reform" and Free Trade discussions, that it must be accepted as the best that has yet been devised.

70. AIRCRAFT

Outline

(1) Their gradual development.
(2) Two kinds:—
  (*a*) Dirigible balloons.
  (*b*) Aeroplanes.
(3) Their uses:—
  (*a*) In war.
  (*b*) As a means of communication.
  (*c*) For exploration.
(4) Their future.

Essay

Among the many wonderful inventions of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries none is more wonderful or of more fascinating

interest than that of the air machine. Since the day when Dædalus winged his flight over the Ægean, man has desired and striven to use the air, as he has used the water, as a means of locomotion, and much money and ingenuity have been wasted in fruitless attempts to fly. Now, at last, after years of labour and experiment a great degree of success has been achieved.

Air machines are of two kinds, dirigible balloons and aeroplanes. Both are driven by means of motor engines; but in the former the buoyancy is supplied by a cigar-shaped balloon from which the car is suspended, while the latter are supported in the air by a huge horizontal framework resembling wings, and rely for their buoyancy on the speed with which they travel. As with the large birds, the aeroplane provides itself with impetus for flight by running along the ground on small wheels attached to the machine. Count Zeppelin, a German, the brothers Wright, Americans, and a Frenchman, M. Bleriot, the first to fly across the channel, are among the best known inventors of these wonderful machines, which grow more numerous every day.

The uses to which aircraft may be put are several. Perhaps the one most talked about at the present day is its use as an instrument of warfare. People discuss the number of soldiers it is possible to carry in an airship, and how air machines may best be utilized to drop bombs on the enemy below. Instead of having only two fields of action, war now has three, the land, the sea, and the air, and when an estimate is made of a nation's power it is necessary to reckon not only men, artillery, and war-vessels, but aircraft as well.

But happily the capabilities of the air machine are not confined to this questionable use in battle. The great speed attainable by these machines should largely increase the means of communication and the opportunities of trade, just as the invention of the steam-ship produced a flourishing commerce between countries which before its introduction had been to a large extent cut off from communication with one another.

The exploration of unknown regions of the earth will also be facilitated by this invention. An attempt to reach the North Pole in a non-dirigible balloon has proved disastrous; but "in a few years," says commander Peary, "with the perfected aeroplane the field of exploration will be widened and expeditions rendered more easy."

At the present day the cost of construction is too serious to

allow of aircraft being generally used, but it has great possibilities in the future, and the time may come when, through the cheapening and improvement of this means of transit, it will be possible to visit every part of the earth's surface easily and quickly. The impetus that the air machine will then give to travelling will go far to create a more friendly spirit between the nations, and we may hope that Tennyson's vision of "the nations airy navies grappling in the central blue" will come to be regarded as so horrible, that, in deciding a quarrel, war will only the sooner for this invention give place to the peaceful methods of arbitration.

71. THE USE MAN HAS MADE OF THE FORCES OF NATURE

Outline

(1) Introduction.

(2) The two principal forces of nature.
  (*a*) Wind.
  (*b*) Water.

(3) Steam as a force of nature; used for—
  (*a*) Locomotives.
  (*b*) Steamships.
  (*c*) Factories.

(4) Conclusion.

Essay

Without the aid of the forces of nature, man would still be in a very primitive state. From early times he has turned these forces to his own use, and before the introduction of machinery they were more under direct requisition than they are at the present day.

The two chief forces of nature are wind and water. The former plays an important part in various ways. Corn is still ground by means of mills that are worked by the wind, and land is drained by means of wind-pumps. Sailing ships of all classes from the large merchantman to the small fishing vessels, depend still for their means of progress on the wind. In all these cases man has adapted the instrument to take advantage of

the force with which nature has supplied him. For the mills he has made sails to catch the wind, together with an ingenious contrivance by which the wind itself turns the mill round so that it always has its sails facing the wind. The ship with its sails is controlled by man himself, who has reached such perfection in their handling, that he can take advantage of the very smallest breeze to drive his craft through the water in any direction he pleases.

The latter force, namely water, has been similarly utilised. Thus flour-mills were once frequently worked by running water, and still, to some extent, use this motive power. The discovery of electricity moreover has brought this force into requisition in a prominent manner, since running water is used to work the machinery that generates electricity. A conspicuous example of this is the Niagara Falls, which are now largely used for this purpose.

Steam may be indirectly called a force of nature, since it is another form of water produced by evaporation. This has proved a great stimulus to the introduction of machinery. Since the invention of the railway by Stephenson, steam has been used for working all kinds of engines. There is the railway engine by means of which hundreds of miles of country can be traversed in a comparatively short time ; there is the engine that works the screw or paddle of merchant or passenger ships and men-of-war, enabling them to cross the ocean far more rapidly and with greater safety than can sailing vessels, which depend on wind and currents ; and there is the steam engine that works machinery in large factories.

Thus it will be seen that the forces of nature, whether directly or indirectly, play a very important part in the material progress of mankind.

72. CYCLING

Outline

(1) Sketch of development of bicycle.
  (*a*) The hobby-horse.
  (*b*) The direct-action bicycle.
  (*c*) Safety bicycles.
  (*d*) Pneumatic tires.

(*e*) Ladies' bicycles.
(*f*) The free wheel.
(*g*) Two and three speed gear.
(*h*) Tricycles.
(*i*) Motor cycles.

(2) Disadvantages of cycling.
(*a*) From a public point of view.
(*i*) Danger to foot passengers.
(*ii*) Danger to horses.
(*b*) From the point of view of rider.
(*i*) Not such good exercise as some others.
(*ii*) Danger of injury to chest from stooping.
(*iii*) Danger to heart from over-exertion.
(*iv*) Punctures.

(3) Advantages.
(*a*) Good exercise, in moderation.
(*b*) Cheapness.
(*c*) Convenience.
(*d*) Pleasant and healthy method of travel.

Essay

Bicycles had their origin in what was known as the hobby-horse, which was propelled by the rider, who pushed with his feet against the ground. After several developments, a form of bicycle came into use of which specimens may still occasionally be seen. It had a large wheel in front, and a small one behind, and the rider sat on a saddle about five feet from the ground and drove the machine by pedals acting directly on the axle of the large wheel. A good many years ago, however, this was superseded by the type of bicycle now generally used. This later was at first known as the safety bicycle, because it was thought that, as it was so much lower than the old kind, there would be less danger of the rider's being injured, if he fell off; but as it is also much faster, this expectation has not been realised.

Soon after the introduction of these bicycles, pneumatic tyres *i.e.*, tyres inflated with air, were invented, which added greatly to the comfort of the rider; and as it is much easier to learn to ride the modern bicycle than its predecessor, there was at once a great increase in the popularity of cycling. It was about this time also that bicycles for ladies came into use.

Some years later a further step in advance was made by the introduction of the free wheel, or wheel that will revolve while the treadles are at rest. A still later improvement is the invention of two and three speed gear, by means of which the rider, by touching a lever, can make his gear either high or low according to his requirements. Thus the low gear, which involves less exertion on the part of the rider, is suitable for going up-hill or against the wind. The high gear is used when the travelling conditions are easy.

Machines with three wheels, working on similar principles to bicycles, are also constructed; but the majority of cyclists prefer the two-wheeled machine, as it is more convenient in most ways, and the initial difficulty of learning to keep one's balance on it is much more easily overcome than one who had never tried it would be apt to imagine. Motor cycles are also increasingly used, but to speak of them would fall more properly under the head of motoring than that of cycling.

The enormous increase in the number of cyclists which followed the introduction of safety bicycles sometimes caused inconvenience to other people using the roads. Foot-passengers were injured by reckless riders, and horses were apt to take fright at the new machines; so that a considerable outcry arose against them. This gradually died away; but it is important that all cyclists should scrupulously obey the rules of the road, and be careful not to do anything that might annoy or endanger other people.

Besides the objections which may be brought against cycling from the point of view of the public, something may be said against it from that of the individual. As an exercise, it is not so good as riding on horseback, or walking, or rowing. The stooping position so often assumed by riders is bad for the chest and back; and over-exertion on the part of the cyclist, especially, in riding uphill, may lead to injury to the heart. As a means of travel, cycling has also the drawback of liability to delay through the puncturing of the pneumatic tyre.

As against these objections it may be said that as an exercise cycling, if indulged in with moderation, is good, even though there may be other better; that it is cheaper than riding on horseback; that as a means of travel it is extremely convenient, saving time, enabling the rider to visit many places which he could not reach on foot, and making him independent of public conveyances; while as compared with railway travelling, it is not

only healthier and pleasanter, but also gives the traveller an opportunity of seeing much more of the country through which he is passing.

71. CHARACTER OF HAMLET

Outline

(1) It makes the tragedy of the play.
(2) Its good qualities.
  (*a*) Affectionateness.
  (*b*) Unselfishness.
  (*c*) Self-control.
  (*d*) Wit.
  (*e*) Shrewdness.
  (*f*) Wisdom.
  (*g*) Courage.
(3) Its bad qualities.
  (*a*) Moral weakness.
  (*b*) Morbid imagination.
  (*c*) Oversensitiveness.
(4) Concluding remarks.

Essay

As in the case of *Othello* and *King Lear*, the secret of the tragedy of *Hamlet* lies in the character of the hero; but, unlike the other two plays, *Hamlet* opens in an atmosphere of storm—"Something is rotten in the state of Denmark," the King has been dead but two months, and the Queen has married his brother. Thus we never see Hamlet under normal conditions, and in judging his character, it is important to remember this. The strain and stress under which he lives and acts must in the end leave him better or worse.

Hamlet, at our first introduction to him, shows himself to be a man of strong affections, which have received two severe shocks, the sudden death of his father and the shattering of his respect for his mother. From the former he would have recovered, but the second leaves an indelible scar. Naturally of a faithful disposition, he cannot easily obliterate old memories; in the midst of his grief he can feel a natural pleasure at the sight of even such friends as Rosencrantz and Guildenstern;

and there is something almost pathetically courteous—something that speaks alike of his unselfishness and his self-control—in the words of welcome with which he turns to Horatio and his companions when the despairing cry of "Oh God, God!" has scarcely left his lips. This self-abnegation reaches its height in his repression of his love for Ophelia until he shall know the result of his vengeance. He will not drag her into the whirlpool of family dishonour. Again and again throughout the play his never failing wit comes to his rescue—a wit which in happier circumstances would have been bright and humorous, but now becomes cynical and poignant. Along with this goes a shrewdness and a power of penetrating the minds of men, so that neither the plotting King nor Queen, Polonius, Rosencrantz, nor Guildenstern can hide their designs from him; and behind all this there lies a greater and graver wisdom, which realizes the follies and failures of Denmark, and which might have made him its reformer. In all that concerns himself alone he is able to act with promptness and decision, nor is personal courage lacking; he dares to follow the apparition "though hell itself should gape." Upon his own life too he set but little value; so that, at first sight, it seems extraordinary that he should not immediately wreak the vengeance demanded by the ghost, instead of continually vacillating as he does, with the burden of unpaid filial duty upon his conscience.

But with all his virtues, Hamlet is the victim of an innate weakness of character, and the pity of it is that this weakness is the outcome of his mental gifts. His is an artistic nature, endowed with great powers of thought and imagination, which are overworked till they become morbid, and simply provide him with arguments for inaction. A born actor, he enacts in his own mind the part of criminal as well as that of avenger; hence time after time he shrinks from the task of killing his uncle, whilst his oversensitive nature finds it hard to inflict pain on a mother whom he still loves. Thus he wavers until fate itself intervenes and strikes down the many instead of the one.

Yet, in spite of all, as we see him lying dead, we cannot but join in Fortinbras's eulogy:—

> "Let four captains
> Bear Hamlet, like a soldier, to the stage;
> For he was likely, had he been put on,
> To have proved most royally."

74. TRAVELLING

Outline

(1) Modern increase of travelling.
(2) Old methods of travelling.
  (*a*) By land.
  (*b*) By water.
(3) Modern methods of travelling.
  (*a*) By land.
  (*b*) By water.
  (*c*) By air.
(4) Advantages of travelling.
  (*a*) To nations; promotes peace and trade.
  (*b*) To individuals; gives health, pleasure, and new interests.

Essay

As civilisation advances, the means of travelling grow cheaper and more convenient, and the number of travellers steadily increases. There are old men and women still living who have never passed the narrow limits of their own town or village; but instances of this kind are few, and grow fewer every day. The reason for this will be evident by a comparison of old methods of travelling with the methods of to-day.

In the olden time travelling by land or water was expensive and uncomfortable, and, in addition, comparatively slow. All long distance travelling by land had of necessity to be performed in those days either on horseback or in some vehicle drawn by a horse. Passengers and mails were carried from place to place by stage coaches at the rate of some ten or twelve miles an hour. For the sake of greater speed and convenience post-chaises, too, were used, more especially by the rich, who would also utilize their private conveyances and themselves provide the necessary relays of horses. Travelling by water was equally laborious and more dangerous. Sailing vessels, being at the mercy of the winds, were liable to be driven out of their course, and were often obliged to wait many days for a favourable breeze; so that a sea voyage was attended by a great deal of risk and uncertainty.

Owing to the discovery of steam power and electricity our modern methods of travelling are very different. England is

covered with a network of railways, and express trains hurry passengers from one end of Europe to the other. The journey from Calcutta to Allahabad, which formerly occupied several months, can now be accomplished in a single day. Besides carriages driven by steam, we now have a large number of electric trains both underground and overhead, and an extensive service of elecrtic tramcars. The use of the motor-car, a swift, pleasent though still somewhat expensive, mode of travelling, is growing more common every day.

The same discoveries, which have thus transformed land travelling, have much improved the conditions of voyaging by sea. Steam power has produced the great ocean-liners which now pass regularly to and from all parts of the world, without the need of consulting wind or current. Indeed, so perfected is this means of locomotion, that steamers coming from distant Australia are able to calculate within a few hours the time of their arrival in England. These huge liners moreover supply their passengers with every comfort and even luxury, so that they have been justly described as " floating hotels."

Another element now bids fair to be utilized generally for travelling purposes. The old floating balloon has never proved a very satisfactory means of progression, but lately by the use of motor power it has been made dirigible, and the invention of the aeroplane seems to herald the conquest of the air as a medium of locomotion. It is not improbable that in the next century aircraft may become almost as common as motor cars are now.

The advantages to be gained from travelling are many. In the first place it promotes peace and brotherhood among mankind. For the more people of different nations intermingle, the more are amicable feelings likely to be fostered among them. The stranger is the enemy, and speaking generally, suspicion lies at the root of war. In the second place travelling gives a stimulus to trade and commerce, by bringing people into touch with one another and opening up new markets. And, thirdly, for the individual, travelling provides health, pleasure, and instruction. Of these the last is the most important effect, especially in the case of the young. For travelling, when it is wisely planned and conducted and does not consist of a feverish rush from place to place, both enlarges the sympathies and widens the intellectual horizon, by the fresh interest and the

ever-new experiences of human life that it brings. Well does Shakspeare observe of one who "spends his youth at home," that he

> "cannot be a perfect man,
> Not being tried and tutored in the world."

75. THE ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH

Outline

(1) Method of working.
  (*a*) Principle of electro-magnet.
  (*b*) Morse Code.

(2) History of invention.
  (*a*) When introduced.
  (*b*) Ocean cables.
  (*c*) Wireless telegraphy.

(3) State and private ownership.

(4) Uses of telegraph.
  (*a*) By newspapers.
  (*c*) In commerce.
  (*b*) In government business.
  (*d*) In military operations.
  (*e*) By private individuals.

Essay.

The electric telegraph is an application of the property of electricity by which, if an electric current is passed through a coil of insulated copper wire surrounding a bar of iron, this bar is for the time being converted into a magnet, losing its magnetism again as soon as the current ceases. If then such an electro-magnet be connected with one end of a wire, and if another piece of iron or steel, capable of turning about a fixed point, be placed near enough to this magnet to be attracted by it, an operator at the end of the wire will be able, by transmitting and cutting off an electric current, alternately to deflect this second piece from, and restore it to, its normal position. Nothing then remains but to arrange a code by which different combinations of these movements shall represent different letters of the alphabet. The code generally used in telegraphy is that

known, from the name of its inventor, as the Morse Code, in which the letters are represented by combinations of dots and dashes, a dot being indicated by a quick movement and a dash by a slower one.

The electric telegraph came into use during the first half of the nineteenth century, having been invented independently, at about the same time, by Wheatstone in England and Morse in America. At first it was regarded as little better than a scientific toy; but a proof of its practical utility was soon given by the capture of a murderer, who had fled by train from the scene of his crime, and would probably have escaped, if a message requesting his arrest had not been sent by telegraph to the station at which he was due to arrive. Perhaps the two most striking developments in the subsequent history of the electric telegraph have been the introduction of ocean cables and the invention of wireless telegraphy. It is still too soon to say whether this latter is likely to supersede the ordinary telegraph; but it is already coming into general use on board ships, especially men-of-war and the larger passenger steamers; and by enabling those on board sinking vessels to summon help, it has already saved many lives.

In most countries the inland telegraph lines, like the post office, are owned and managed by the Government; but some inland telegraph lines, and the majority of ocean cables, belong to private companies.

The newspapers are among the chief users of the electric telegraph, and by its means they are enabled, within a few hours or perhaps even a few minutes of the occurrence of important or interesting events in distant parts of the world, to publish an account of them. Press messages, in view of their numbers and length, are generally sent at lower rates than are charged for others. The telegraph is also extensively used in commerce, in the business of Government, in military operations, and by private individuals who have messages to send requiring immediate delivery. It has saved an incalculable amount of time and money; and in addition, by calling in timely aid, such as that of the doctor in cases of sudden illness, the telegraph, on land as at sea, has often been the means of saving life.

76. ARCTIC EXPLORATION

Outline

(1) Reasons for which undertaken.
  (*a*) Search for North-West Passage.
  (*b*) Whaling.
  (*c*) Love of adventure, and scientific curiosity.

(2) Carried on by—
  (*a*) Ships.
  (*b*) Sledges.
  (*c*) Balloons.

(3) Dangers and discomforts.
  (*a*) Storm and fog.
  (*b*) Dreary scenery and absence of life.
  (*c*) Rough and difficult travelling.
  (*d*) Snow blindness.
  (*e*) Darkness of winter.
  (*f*) Intense cold.
  (*g*) Moving ice.

(4) Fascination of arctic regions for explorers.

Essay

The earlier arctic exploring expeditions, like the voyages of Columbus which resulted in the discovery of America, were chiefly undertaken with the object of finding a new trade route to India. It was thought that a channel might be discovered to the north of America by which ships could sail from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean; and it was only after the sacrifice of many lives and much treasure that the attempt was abandoned as impracticable. One of the most famous of the explorers who devoted themselves to the search for the North-West Passage was Sir John Franklin, who perished in the ice with all his men. It has since been proved that such a passage exists, and quite recently a Norwegian captain, with a few companions, sailed through it in a small vessel: but it is too much encumbered with ice to be of any value for commercial purposes.

Among the earlier visitors to the arctic seas there were also many who went in pursuit of whales. The whale fishery is still

carried on, but its importance has much decreased through the discovery of petroleum.

Arctic exploration was thus begun for practical reasons; but even after these had lost most of their force, it was not abandoned. There is a large class of men for whom the prospect of adventure, of overcoming difficulties and penetrating where no one has ever been before, has great attractions; and the later arctic explorers have besides been actuated by the hope of obtaining information of scientific value. The aim of most of them has been to reach the North Pole, and many expeditions have been sent out with this object; till at last the world was startled by the announcement that Commander Peary had succeeded in achieving this feat.

Arctic exploration has been carried on to a large extent in ships; but as there is land in the polar regions as well as water, and ice covers much of the sea itself, sledges and teams of dogs to draw them are a necessary part of the equipment of an arctic expedition. Schemes have also been proposed for reaching the Pole by balloon, and one explorer, Andree, actually made the attempt some years ago; but he has never been heard of since. It is quite possible, however, that modern developments in aircraft may make this method practicable.

Besides the dangers of storm and fog, to which navigators in all latitudes are exposed, arctic exploration has its own peculiar perils and discomforts. The explorer must travel through scenery dreary in the extreme, with no sign of life anywhere, and nothing to be seen but ice and snow; and these not smooth and easy to travel over, but rugged and intersected by dangerous crevasses, so that he can often advance only a few miles in a day. In the summer he is in danger of snow-blindness, brought on by the dazzling glare of the sun on the snow; in the winter he must pass long months in darkness, illuminated only by the aurora borealis. The cold is so intense that if he touches any metal objects with his bare hand they will burn him as though they were red-hot; and he is in constant danger of frostbite. The ice is a continual source of peril to him. When travelling over what looks like a solidly frozen surface, he may suddenly find that movements caused by gale or currents in open water miles away have cut him off from the shore, and left him adrift on a floating island; while his ship, however, stoutly built, is liable to be crushed like an eggshell between moving masses, or even if not thus destroyed, to become so firmly

embedded that it is impossible to extricate her, thus exposing him to the risk of death by starvation or cold.

In spite of these drawbacks, however, the arctic regions seem to have for many men an irresistible fascination. Their pure, keen atmosphere has an exhilarating and bracing effect on mind and body; and though practical people may ask whether anything that can be gained by arctic exploration is worth the risk and suffering that it involves, its attractions for the explorers themselves are too strong for such a question to trouble them.

77. THE TRAMWAY

Outline

(1) Origin of the tramway.
  (*a*) Friction lessened by rails.
  (*b*) Introduction of railways.

(2) Differences between the tramway and the railway.
  (*a*) Railway for long distances, tramway for short.
  (*b*) Railway on special road, tramway on street.
  (*c*) Railway carriages form trains, tram-cars run singly.
  (*d*) Intervals of starting.
  (*e*) Distances between stopping places.
  (*f*) No stations on tramways.
  (*g*) Methods of charging fares.
  (*h*) Names given to vehicles.

(3) Methods of traction.
  (*a*) Horses.
  (*b*) Steam.
  (*c*) Electricity.

(4) Advantages of the tramway.
  (*a*) Makes locomotion easy.
  (*b*) Prevents overcrowding in towns.

Essay

It was long ago discovered by engineers that a vehicle would travel with much less friction on rails than on an ordinary road; and that therefore on a railway a given load could be drawn at

a given speed with a much smaller expenditure of power. It was this discovery that brought railways into general use. Later on it was perceived that rails might be used in connexion with passenger traffic for short distances and between different parts of the same town with as much advantage as for long distances and between different towns; and so tramways came into existence, and are now found in almost all towns of any importance throughout the civilised world.

The tramway is thus really a particular kind of railway; but it differs from the railway in several respects. Generally speaking, it may be said that the railway is a line for the carriage of both goods and passengers for long distances, and the tramway a line for the carriage of passengers for short distances; and most of the points of difference between them arise from this difference in their use. Railway trains, however, are frequently run for short distances, and the distances for which trams are run are gradually getting longer, so that railway and the tramway now very often come into competition. The railway is built on a specially constructed road, which is exclusively reserved for the trains; while the tram-rails are laid on the ordinary streets. A large number of railway carriages are usually coupled together and drawn by one locomotive, the whole forming what is known as a train; but tram-cars are generally run singly, and seldom more than two or three together. Railway trains start at comparatively long intervals, and trams every few minutes. The distances between the stopping-places are also for the most part longer on a railway than on a tramway; and tramways, have nothing resembling a railway station, except sometimes a shelter-shed for passengers. Formerly it was the common practice for trams to stop whenever passengers wanted to get on or off; but now as a rule there are regular stopping-places, marked merely by an inscription, put up in some convenient place, to the effect that tram-cars stop there. On most railways the fare charged is in proportion to the distance travelled; but on tramways the line is usually divided into a number of stages, and the fare charged is according to the number of stages over which the traveller has passed, the fare being the same for the whole of a stage or part of it. For example, if a passenger entered the tram near the end of one stage, travelled through the whole of the next, and then went a little way on into the third, he would have to pay the full fare for three stages. It may also be mentioned that in England the vehicle which runs on a railway is called a railway carriage,

and that on a tramway is called a tram or tram-car; but there is often very little except the difference of name to distinguish them from one another, and in the United States of America they are both called cars.

Tram-cars were at first drawn by horses, and later steam was also tried; but both these methods of traction are now being rapidly superseded by electricity; which has been found to be speedier, cleaner, and more economical. The electricity for the tramway is generated by powerful machinery at a central station called the Power House, and conveyed to the trams sometimes underground, but more often by an overhead wire.

There is no good thing that may not be put to a bad use, and it does sometimes happen that the tramway encourages laziness, and that people who would be much the better for more exercise get into the habit of riding even for the shortest distances: but on the whole it is a very useful and convenient institution. It renders passage easy from one end of a town to another, and in many large towns, where it was very difficult for people to get houses, and where the dwellings of the poorer classes were very much overcrowded in consequence, it has done a great deal to remedy this evil by making it possible for people to live further away from their work.

78. THE POETRY OF TENNYSON

Outline

(1) Its melody and careful workmanship.
(2) It pictures nature rather than mankind; is wanting in dramatic power.
(3) It reflects the science of his age.
(4) Its high moral purpose.

Essay

Tennyson's poetry is remarkable for its combination of lofty thought with perfect melody of rhythm and diction. The saying that "Genius is an infinite capacity for taking pains" finds ample illustration in the works of Tennyson. For he polished and repolished his verses unremittingly, and the only poem he seems to have left uncorrected in his manuscript is the well known lyric, "Break, break, break, On thy cold grey stones, O sea!" And

yet none of his poems appear to be laboured except those of his early years. When Wordsworth made alterations it was almost always for the worse, but Tennyson possessed the true artistic nature, and is as careful in the framework as in the subject-matter of his poetry. He is a true musician, with an ear for all the cadences of harmonious rhythm.

This is well seen in that most musical of all his compositions, *The Lotus-eaters*, in which sense and sound are inextricably interwoven. As here, Tennyson is almost always happiest when he has nature for his subject. Many instances have been pointed out of his minute observation of natural phenomena. Take only these two examples :—

> " Hair
> More black than ashbuds in the front of March. "
> " Blasts that blow the poplar white."

Tennyson, indeed, is not a dramatic poet. He is little touched with human affairs. The men and women he has sketched for us are nearly all as shadowy as Arthur, " the grey king " of his Idylls. His early verses on different types of women are graceful but colourless, and among his other poems the only character that stands out is that of the " Princess," while perhaps the most attractive is the " Gardener's Daughter," who, however, is pictured rather as a rose among roses than as a woman of flesh and blood. His men as a rule are even more characterless than his women—witness the heroes of *The Princess* and of *Locksley Hall*, and the morbid lover of *Maud* ; though to these " Will Waterproof " forms a healthy contrast :—

> " And yet, tho' all the world forsake,
> Tho' fortune clip my wings,
> I will not cramp my heart, nor take
> Half views of men and things."

But even he does not live before us as do the men of Browning.

The scientific discoveries of his day are strongly reflected in Tennyson's poetry, and have given birth to some of his finest utterances, as in *Maud* :—

> " A monstrous eft was of old the Lord and Master of Earth.
> For him did the high sun flame, and the river billowing ran,
> And he felt himself in his force to be Nature's crowning race.
> As nine months go to the shaping an infant ripe for his birth,
> So many a million ages have gone to the making of man."

Yet while he believed in the advancing light of science, Tennyson clung to his old faith amid the doubts of his age, and

in after days he drew from these very doubts his philosophy of life, expressed in such poems as *The Ancient Sage* and *De Profundis*. After the troubled unrest of Shelley and Byron comes the moral calm won by Tennyson and Browning. With all his artistic power and love of the beautiful, Tennyson, like Wordsworth, ever takes for his motto "Art for Humanity's sake," condemning in *The Palace of Art* with no uncertain voice the fallacy of "Arts for Art's sake." Glowing with pure truth and high endeavour, his poetry is a beacon-light to those who are ready with him to "follow the gleam":—

> "We needs must love the highest when we see it,
> Not Lancelot or another."

79. THE GAME OF FOOTBALL

Outline

(1) Class of games to which football belongs.
(2) A winter game.
(3) Varieties.
  (*a*) Rugby.
  (*b*) Association.
(4) Objections to football.
  (*a*) Brutality.
  (*b*) Danger.
(5) Answers to objections.
  (*a*) Not unreasonably dangerous.
  (*b*) Cultivates good qualities in players.

Essay

Football is one of a class of games in which the object of the players on each side is to drive a ball across a certain line, or between two posts which constitute what is known as their opponents' goal; and of course to protect their own goal from the attacks of the opposing players. Other well-known games of this class are polo, hockey, and lacrosse.

Football involves such violent exertion that it would be almost impossible to play it in hot weather; but it is a good game

for cold weather, especially as it does not require such a smooth turf as many of the summer games. In England it is as popular from November to April as cricket is from May to October, if not more so; and though the climate of India is not so suitable for it, even there football is extensively played.

There are two main varieties of the game of football, Rugby and Association. The former derives its name and its rules from Rugby School, an English public school which became famous under the head-mastership of Dr. Arnold. A well-known passage in that celebrated book, "Tom Brown's School Days," describes the game as played there. In that game there was no limit to the number of players on either side; but in Rugby football, as it is now played, the opposing teams number fifteen each. The Association game, which is so called because it is played under the rules of the English Football Association, is played by eleven on each side. The ball in both games is made of pigskin and inflated with air; but in the Rugby game an oval ball is used, and in the Association a spherical one. There are a number of differences in the rules, but the principle of the two games is the same.

The tendency of modern developments of football has been to give greater importance to combined play than to individual achievement, and a good footballer plays for his side rather than for himself.

Football is necessarily a rough game, and if the players lose control of their temper, it sometimes degenerates into mere brutality; while serious and even fatal accidents occasionally happen even when it is properly played. For this reason there are many people who disapprove of the game altogether.

Its advocates, however, contend that there is an element of risk in all athletic sports, so that it is only a question of degree, and that football is not unreasonable dangerous; moreover that it tends to cultivate in its votaries qualities of mind and body such as strength, agility, presence of mind, courage, self-command, and unselfishness, which will not only make them better players, but better men and better citizens.

80. VOLCANOES

Outline

(1) Formation of volcanoes.
  (*a*) Lava.
  (*b*) Vapours and Gases.
  (*c*) Cone and crater.
  (*d*) Fissure eruptions.
(2) Active and intermittent volcanoes.
(3) Description of volcanic eruption.
  (*a*) Earthquakes.
  (*b*) Cloud of dust and vapour.
  (*c*) Darkness.
  (*d*) Ashes, dust, stones, mud, and lava.
  (*e*) Tidal waves.
  ( ) Landslips.
  (*g*) Alteration of shape of mountain.
  (*h*) Appearance and disappearance of islands.
(4) Well-known volcanoes.

Essay

The heat of the earth's interior is so great that rocks are melted by it, forming what is known as lava. Vapours and gases are also generated in large quantities, and where these can find any vent they force their way to the surface, often expelling before them with great violence fragments of solid matter which have obstructed their path; while the lava may also be driven by pressure from beneath to seek the same outlet. The materials thrown out usually fall over a wide extent of country; but both they, and the lava as it cools and solidifies, naturally lie thickest immediately around the vent. Thus a conical hill or mountain is gradually formed, having a funnel-like depression at the top, called the crater, through which fresh matter is from time to time ejected. This is the commonest form of volcano; but what are called "fissure eruptions" also occur, in which lava, instead of issuing from a round hole, wells up through a crack or fissure in the surface of the earth, and sometimes flows away without forming any cone or crater.

Some volcanoes are constantly active, though varying from time to time in the degree of their activity. Others are inter-

mittent, remaining quiescent for long periods, perhaps even for centuries, and then breaking out again with a violence intensified by their interval of repose. Thus the celebrated eruption of Vesuvius which destroyed the towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum—the first volcanic outburst of which we have any authentic record in European history—took place at a time when the volcano had been so long inactive that it was generally believed to be extinct.

Volcanic eruptions vary considerably in their details; but they are always among the most terrifying and destructive of natural phenomena. They are usually preceded by earthquakes; then a dark column of vapour, impregnated with dust, shoots up from the crater to the great height, and spreads out at the top like a tree. Lightnings play round the cloud thus formed; and often it envelopes the country for miles around in darkness. Then the volcano discharges sometimes a fiery whirlwind of burning ashes; sometimes a shower of dust, stones, or hot mud; sometimes a torrent of boiling lava. The great eruption of Krakatoa, in the Straits of Sunda, caused t dal waves which destroyed an enormous number of lives; while in the eruption of Bandai San, in Japan, the whole side of the mountain broke away, and came down in one huge landslip on the villages below. It frequently happens that the shape of the volcano is completely changed by the outburst; sometimes whole islands disappear; and sometimes new ones are thrown up from the depths of the sea.

Other well-known volcanoes, in addition to those already mentioned, are Etna in Sicily, Stromboli in the Mediterranean, Hekla in Iceland, Kilauea in the Sandwich Islands, Cotopaxi in the Andes, which is the highest active volcano in the world, and Mont Pelee in the French colony of Martinique in the West Indies, an eruption of which some years ago destroyed the town of St. Pierre, with terrible loss of life.

SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS

WITH NOTES

I. NARRATIVE ESSAYS

(*a*) HISTORICAL EVENTS AND LEGENDS.

1. The reign of Edward VII.
2. The story of the Ramayana.
3. The story of the Mahabharat.
4. The Spanish Armada.
5. The story of Sakuntala.
6. Invasions of India (1 *Greek*—*Alexander*; 2. *Scythian*; 3. *Arab*; 4. *Turkish*—*Mahmud*: 5. *Tartar*—*Timur*; 6. *Moghul*; 7. *Persian*—*Nadir Shah*).
7. The Pindaris.
8. The battle of Plassey.
9. The first Burmese war.
10. The battle of Agincourt.
11. The Sikh war, 1845-9.
12. The history of the Parsees.
13. The Crimean war.
14. The French Revolution of 1789.
15. The story of the Pilgrim Fathers.
16. The battle of the Nile.
17. The Mahrattas.
18. The Portuguese in India.
19. The Dutch in India.
20. The Thugs.
21. The battle of Poitiers.
22. The third Crusade.
24. The defence of Arcot.
25. The battle of Crecy.
26. The story of Boadicea.
27. The story of Grace Darling.
28. The Turks in Europe.
29. An arctic expedition (Cf. Essay 76).
30. The story of Ulysses and the Sirens.
31. King Alfred and the cakes.
32. An incident in Indian History.
33. The story of Solon and Crœsus.
34. The battle of Hastings (or Senlac).
35. The story of Tantalus.
36. Androcles and the lion.
37. The dog of Montargis.
38. George Washington and his little axe.
39. Any great siege.
40. Any great rebellion.
41. Metz and Sedan in the Franco-German War, 1870.
42. The fort of Gwalior.
43. An incident in English history.
44. The story of Milton's "Paradise Lost."
45. The reign of Akbar.
46. The insurrection of the Duke of Monmouth.
47. The massacre of Glencoe.
48. The Gordon riots.
49. The battle of Trafalgar.
50. The siege of Sebastopol.
51. The first ascent of the Matterhorn.
52. The Reformation.
53. Any great sea fight.
54. Any great land fight.
55. Jack Cade's insurrection.
56. The revolt under Wat Tyler.
57. The rising of the Young Pretender in 1745.
58. The assassination of Earl Mayo.
59. The siege of Port Arthur.
60. The Russo-Japanese War.
61. The Cossacks.
62. The siege of Plevna.
63. The story of "The Merchant of Venice."
64. The story of Alexander Selkirk (Cf. "Robinson Crusoe.")
65. The story of "The Lady of the Lake."

66. The story of "The Tempest."
67. The conquest of the Sudan, 1898.
68. The passing of the Reform Bill of 1832.
69. The wars of the Roses.
70. The relief of Lucknow.
71. The conquest of Canada.
72. The Roman occupation of Britain
73. The siege of Calais.
74. The conquest of Wales.
75. The White Ship.
76. The 100 year's war.
77. Llewellyn and his dog.
78. The Norman conquest.
79. The battle of Culloden.
80. Bruce and the spider.
81. The Boer war, 1899-1902.
82. The battle of Thermopylæ.
83. England's conflict with Napoleon I.
84. The story of Scott's "Marmion"
85. Our relations with France in the 15th century.
86. The battle of Blenheim.

(*b*) INCIDENTS, STORIES, ETC.

1. A steamboat journey.
2. How I spent my holidays.
3. A railway journey.
4. Caught in a cyclone at sea.
5. A tale told by an old soldier.
6. The traping of the elephant.
7. A fairy tale.
8. A balloon adventure.
9. A true story.
10. A night at sea.
11. A brave deed.
12. A holiday ramble.
13. A ghost story.
14. How I shot my first tiger.
15. A journey by mail cart (or coach).
16. The theft of the jewels.
17. A walk through a great city.
18. A rescue from a house on fire.
19. How the hill-fort was captured,
20. A fight with a boa-constrictor.
21. An adventure with an elephant.
22. Caught by the tide.
24. A shipwreck.
25. The duel.
26. How I once played truant.
27. The runaway horse and carriage.
28. The story of Ali Baba and the forty thieves.
29. The fable of the fox and the goat.
30. An accident.
31. A race for life.
32. The land-slip.
33. An incident in my life.
34. A great plague.
35. A trip by aeroplane.
36. A journey round the world.
37. Lost in the jungle.
38. Two stories of wild animals, tamed by kindness.
39. An imaginary account of a shipwreck.
40. A tale of a cat (cf. Essay 6).
41. Gulliver in Lilliput.
42. Alice in Wonderland.
43. The life of a rat on board ship.
44. The story of Faithful in "The Pilgrim's Progress."
45. A mischievous monkey.
46. Picture England suddenly deprived of steam, electricity, and gas.
47. A successful experiment.
48. A sleigh ride.
49. A capsize.
50. Caught in a shower.
51. An unpleasant surprise.
52. A day at the seaside.
53. A noble deed.
54. A striking scene in any play that you have read.
55. A ride in a motor-car.
56. Supposing yourself left in charge of a village shop for a day, recount your experiences.
57. A voyage by submarine.
58. The visit of a celebrity to your town.

59. Life on a large farm.
60. An unexpected piece of luck.
61. A day's fishing.
62. Out with the fire engine.
63. A walking tour.
64. A haunted house.
65. An imaginary visit to a famous author.
66. Snowed up in a train.
67. A journey in a tramcar.
68. The story of a coin; its birth, life, and experiences.
69. A cricket match.
70. A hockey match.
71. A football match.
72. Kindness rewarded.
73. An alarm of fire.
74. Life in a manufactory.
75. A difficult errand.
76. A disappointment.
77. A visit to a country fair.
78. Life on board ship.
79. A story.
80. Speech-day at your school.
81. The laying of a foundation stone.
82. A picnic.
83. A military review.
84. A boating tour.
85. Sindbad the sailor.
86. A cruise in the Mediterranean.
87. The adventures of an umbrella.
88. A bicycling tour.
89. A day at an Exhibition.
90. Missing the train.
91. A clever stratagem.
92. A faithful dog.

(c) Biographies.

1. William Ewart Gladstone.
2. Thomas Beket.
3. Sakya Muni (or Gautama Buddha).
4. Asoka.
5. Frederick the Great.
6. Clive.
7. Lord William Bentinck.
8. Ranjit Singh.
9. Francis Bacon.
10. Rammohan Roy.
11. George Washington.
12. Sir Walter Scott.
13. Macaulay.
14. Oliver Cromwell.
15. Your favourite hero.
16. Sir Walter Raleigh.
17. Cardinal Wolsey.
18. Sivaji.
19. Warren Hastings.
20. Vasco da Gama.
21. Lord Dalhousie.
22. Milton.
23. Sir Isaac Newton,
24. Joan of Arc.
25. George Stephenson.
26. Peter the Great.
27. Cowper (See §15).
28. Garibaldi.
29. Napoleon I.
30. Keshub Chandra Sen.
31. A short life of some great man
32. Socrates.
33. Your favourite heroine.
34. Samuel Johnson.
35. Lord Macaulay.
36. The Earl of Mayo.
37. Dupleix.
38. Mary, Queen of Scots.
39. The Duke of Marlborough.
40. Savonarola.
41. David Livingstone.
42. General Wolfe.
43. Sir John Moore.
44. Chandra Gupta (or Sandrocottus).
45. Richard I. of England.
46. Timur.
47. Baber.
48. Oliver Goldsmith.
49. Mohammed.
50. John Howard.
51. Owen Glyndwr (or Glendower).
52. Saladin.
53. Louis XIV.
54. Sir Francis Drake.
55. Constantine the Great.
56. Victoria, Queen and Empress
57. Abraham Lincoln.

58. General Gordon.
59. The Earl of Beaconsfield.
60. Colonel Burnaby.
61. General Skobeleff.
62. Lord Dufferin.
63. Julius Cæsar.
64. Gambetta.
65. Mazzini.
66. Ignatius Loyola.
67. The life of your favourite author.
68. Lord Salisbury, 1830-1903.
69. Joseph Chamberlain.
70. The life and work of any great historian.
71. Rudyard Kipling.
72. The Duke of Wellington.
73. King Edward VII.
74. Alfred the Great.
75. William the Conqueror.
76. William Pitt, the elder.
77. Shakespeare.
78. Lord Kitchener.
79. Florence Nightingale.
80. Queen Elizabeth.
81. William of Orange.
82. Henry VIII.
83. Charles I.

II. DESCRIPTIVE ESSAYS

(*a*) Animals, Plants, Fruits, Minerals.

1. Snakes.
2. The cow.
3. Rice.
4. The cocoanut palm.
5. The tiger.
6. Fruits, Indian and English.
7. The Indian crow.
8. The agriculture products of Bengal.
9. The cuckoo.
10. Fishes and fishermen.
11. The elephant.
12. Petroleum.
13. The carrier pigeon.
14. The buffalo.
15. The potato.
16. Chalk.
17. The kite.
18. The apple.
19. Clay.
20. The mongoose.
21. The human eye.
22. The zebra.
23. The ostrich.
24. Bees.
25. The cat.
26. The tamarind tree.
27. Cocks and hens.
28. The chestnut tree.
29. The cobra.
30. Salt.
31. Cork.
32. The Indian rhinoceros.
33. The owl.
34. Extinct animals (in human times).
35. Indian trees.
36. The bat.
37. The duck.
38. Birds and their habits.
39. The lion.
40. Domestic animals.
41. Fruit trees.
42. The human body.
43. Indian Flowers.
44. A sponge.
45. Draught-beasts and beasts of burden.
46. Beasts used for riding.
47. Wasps.
48. Butterflies and moths.
49. Iron and its uses.
50. Pearls.
51. Any two animals useful to man.
52. Creeping plants.
53. The wild boar.
54. The dog.
55. Slate.
56. Whales (*Products*: 1. *Whalebone*; 2. *Spermaceti*; 3. *Train-oil*).
57. The eagle.

58. Ants.
59. The seal.
60. The palmtree.
61. The rose.
62. The parrot.
63. The wolf (Cf. *in mythology and legend*; *the werwolf*).
64. The jackal.
65. The ass.
66. The goat.
67. The spider.
68. Gold.
69. The hippopotamus.
70. The orange.
71. Tin.
72. The adjutant stork.
73. Glass.
74. The sugarcane.
75. Maize (or Indian corn).
76. Diamonds.
77. Silver.
78. The jackfruit.
79. The sheep.
80. Lead.
81. Copper.
82. The rat.
83. Antidiluvian animals.
84. The white ant.
85. The giraffe.
86. The oyster.
87. The mouse.
88. The locust.
89. The silkworm.
90. The hawk.
91. The kangaroo.
92. The lark.
93. The tortoise.
94. Lizards.
95. Frogs and toads.
96. The shark.
97. Crabs.
98. The sword-fish.
99. The flying-fish.
100. The scorpion.
101. The centipede.
102. The cricket.
103. Flies.
104. The snail.
105. Earth-worms.
106. The hedgehog.
107. The mole.
108. The fire-fly.
109. Cotton (*See* §16).
110. Wool.
111. An egg.
112. The mango.
113. English trees.
114. English flowers.
115. Melons.
116. The pineapple.
117. The rabbit (1. *Its fecundity*; 2. *Its destructiveness.*)
118. The eucalyptus.
119. The mocking bird.
120. The sensitive plant.
121. The sundew.
122. The reindeer.
123. The oak tree.
124. Edible roots.
125. Edible berries.
126. Steel.
127. Hops.
128. The bent-grass (*Note its use in annexing and colonising sand-dunes*).
129. The bear.
130. Ivory.
131. The daisy.
132. The sparrow.
133. Marble.
134. Stone.
135. The geranium.
136. The salmon.
137. The five senses.
138. Any fruit-tree.
139 Any foreign vegetable product.
140 The character and behaviour of a dog or any pet animal.
141. The history of a butterfly or a swallow or a salmon.

(*b*) TOWNS, PORTS, SHIPS, BUILDINGS, ETC.

1. An Indian temple.
2. Westminster Abbey.
3. Stonehenge.
4. Venice.
5. Udaipur.
6. New York.
7. Delhi.

8. Amritsar.
9. Windsor castle.
10. Bombay.
11. A ruin.
12. Darjeeling.
13. The town or village in which you live.
14. Indian seaports.
15. Paris.
16. Dwelling-houses, Indian and European.
17. Docks.
18. Sydney.
19. A pagoda.
20. Rock-cut temples.
21. The Coliseum.
22. Chicago.
23. Agra (*See* § 16).
24. The port of Calcutta.
25. A cathedral.
26. The great wall of China.
27. A lighthouse.
28. The Eiffel tower.
29. A school-room.
30. A jail.
31. A museum.
32. A mosque.
33. A village school.
34. A cotton mill.
35. The pyramids of Egypt.
36. A bridge over a great river.
37. Benares.
38. River ghats (or landing stages)
39. Madras.
40. An Indian fortress.
41. Ahmedabad.
42. Mandalay.
43. Aden.
44. Colombo.
45. Fort William, Calcutta.
46. Quebec
47. The Crystal Palace.
48. Lhassa.
49. Rangoon.
50. Birmingham.
51. An Indian hill-station.
52. An English watering-place.
53. Edinburgh.
54. The Kew Gardens.
55. St. Paul's Cathedral.
56. Stratford-on-Avon.
57. The Thames Embankment.
58. Petrograd.
59. Rome (ancient or modern).
60. The Port of Bristol.
61. Constantinople.
62. Liverpool.
63. Pompeii.
64. Pekin.
65. Dublin.
66. The Taj Mahal.
67. Alexandria.
68. Moscow.
69. A locomotive engine.
70. The Tower of London.
71. A motor car.
72. A bicycle.
73. A ruined abbey.
74. A great liner.
75. A life-boat.
76. A fire-engine.
77. The interior of a church.
78. A dreadnought.
79. The capital of any foreign country.
80. The chief seaports of the United Kingdom.
81. The Albert Memorial.
82. Khartoum.
83. London in the 14th century.

(*c*) COUNTRIES, ISLANDS, MOUNTAINS, SEAS, RIVERS.

1. An Indian river.
2. Africa.
3. The Mediterranean Sea.
4. Japan.
5. The Suez Canal.
6. The Niagara Falls.
7. The Himalayas.
8. The Native States of India.
9. The river Nile.
10. The West Indies.
11. Ceylon.
12. The Khyber Pass.
13. The river Ganges.
14. The river Thames.
15. The Black Sea.
16. Alaska.
17. The Australian Commonwealth (*Name the Colonies included; area, climate,*

natural features; products, chief towns).

18. Egypt.
19. Cashmere.
20. The river Indus.
21. The Panama Canal.
22. The South African Federation.
23. The Dominion of Canada (*of what States composed? Newfoundland not included*).
24. The Victoria Falls.
25. The great lakes of North America.
26. Oudh.
27. The river Danube.
28. Mont Blanc.
29. English possessions in Europe (*Enumerate them; say how acquired; their advantages and disadvantages*).
30. English possessions in Asia.
31. English possessions in Africa
32. English possessions in America.
33. The Atlantic Ocean (*Length and breadth; river-drainage; depth; islands; commercial routes*).
34. The Pacific Ocean.
35. The Turkish Empire.
36. The Baltic Sea.
37. The Indian Ocean.
38. Afghanistan.
39. The Congo Free State.
40. Siberia.
41. Crete.
42. The river Euphrates.
43. Switzerland.
44. Malta.
45. The English Lake District (*Cf. Essay* 33).
46. An important English Colony or Dependency.
47. The lakes and rivers of Ireland.
48. The Scottish Aighlands.
49. The Amazon.
50. Thibet.
51. Russia.
52. The great lakes of N. America.
53. The Alps.
54. The Andes.
55. New Zealand.
56. The rivers of France.
57. The Trossachs.
58. The United States of America

(*d*) ASPECTS AND PHENOMENA OF NATURE.

1. An orchard.
2. The rainy season in India.
3. The hot season in India.
4. The cold season in India.
5. Mountain scenery.
6. A moonlight night.
7. An Indian jungle.
8. A village at sunrise.
9. An evening walk.
10. A garden.
11. Sunrise in the plains.
12. Night in the jungle.
13. Some scene of natural beauty.
14. A summer night.
15. A waterfall.
16. A sunset.
17. A great river in time of heavy rain.
18. Early morning in a great city.
19. A thunderstorm.
20. The plains of Bengal.
21. A great desert.
22. The seaside in winter.
23. A flood.
24. The physical conformation of India.
25. Sunrise in the mountains.
26. Spring in England.
27. Winter in Russia.
28. An American prairie.
29. A busy city street.
30. Autumn.
31. A heavy fall of snow.
32. A Devonshire lane.
33. Norwegian scenery.
34. A wet day.
35. The banks of the Thames.
36. An English forest.
37. The picturesque features of your district.

(*e*) MANUFACTURED ARTICLES.

1. A watch.

2. Silk.
3. Gunpowder.
4. Material for clothing.
5. Bread.
6. Tea.
7. Coffee.
8. Opium.
9. Paper.
10. Any great picture or statue that you have seen.
11. Butter.
12. Tobacco (*See* § 16).
13. A bullock-cart.
14. Leather.
15. Indigo.
16. Cocoa.
17. Agricultural implements.
18. A pianoforte.
19. Sugar (1. *Cane sugar*, 2. *Bee sugar*, 3. *Palm sugar*, 4. *Maple* (*sugar*).
20. Cheese.
21. Wine.
22. Beer.

III. REFLECTIVE ESSAYS.

(*a*) HABITS, QUALITIES, ETC.

1. The importance of bodily exercises.
2. Kindness to animals.
3. Self-denial.
4. Humility.
5. Obedience to parents.
6. Good taste.
7. Philanthropy.
8. Politeness.
9. Contentment.
10. Character (*What it is*; *its manifestations and results*).
11. Idleness (*See* § 17).
12. Tact.
13. Bad habits (*How they are produced*; *their effects*; *how to overcome them*).
14. Punctuality ("*The politeness of kings*").
15. Truthfulness.
16. Thrift.
17. Health, and how to preserve it.
18. Moral courage (*Strength of mind*; "*moral*" *is opposed to* "*physical*").
19. Instinct and reason (*How they differ*; *have animals reason?*)
20. The pleasures of hope.
21. Zeal.
22. Charity (*See* § 6).
23. Heroism (*See Essay* 49).
24. Carelessness.
25. True bravery.
26. Self-reliance.
27. Patriotism.
28. Solitude.
29. Perseverance.
30. Loyalty.
31. Superstition.
32. Contentment.
33. Suspicion.
34. Luxury (*See* § 13).
35. Ingratitude.
36. Imagination.
37. Irritablity.
38. Flattery.
39. Toleration.
40. Popularity.
41. Obedience to authority.
42. The different kinds of courage (1. *Physical*, 2. *Moral*, 3. *Intellectual*).
43. Courtesy (*Based on sincerity, tolerance, kindliness, self-restraint, unselfishness*).
44. Revenge.
45. Making a right use of time.
46. The cultivation of the memory.
47. Cheerfulness.
48. Intemperance.
49. Selfishness.
50. Fastidiousness.
51. Optimism and pessimism (*Hopefulness and the reverse*).
52. Sympathy.
53. Taciturnity (*Its causes, gains, and losses*; *cf.* "*Speech is silvern, silence is golden*").
54. A sense of duty.
55. Wisdom.
56. Enterprise.
57. Curiosity (*Cf. thirst for know-*

ledge as opposed to inquisitiveness).
58. Exaggeration.
59. Enthusiasm (*Contrast with fanaticism*).
60. Envy.
61. Decision of character.
62. Temperance.
63. Good humour.
64. Self-conceit.
65. Falsehood.
66. Sympathy.
67. Thoughtlessness.
68. Manliness.
69. Officiousness.
70. Knowledge and wisdom compared (*Cf. Cowper, "Task," VI.* 88-97).
71. Deafness and blindness (*Which is the worse? How they are ameliorated*).
72. Presence of mind (*Self-possession; calmness in the face of danger*).
73. Avarice.
74. Business habits.
75. Self-control.
76. Pride (*See* § 22).
77. Industry.
78. Prejudice.
79. Extravagance.
80. Justice.
81. Forgiveness.
82. Patience.
83. The true gentleman (*Characteristics*: 1. *Good manners*, 2. *High principle*, 3. *Liberal education*, 4. *Refinement of feeling*, 5. *Consideration for others*).
84. Hospitality.
85. Self-help.
86. Parental affection.
87. Reverence.
88. Playing truant.
89. Early rising.
90. Secrecy (*Cf. reticence, reserve, and No.* 53.)
91. Affectation.
92. Credulity.
93. Conscientiousness.
94. Cowardice.
95. Anger (*Cf. Essay* 58).
96. Companionableness.
97. Sensitiveness.
98. Talkativeness (*Cf.* No. 53).
99. The formation of character as the true end of education (*Cf. No.* 10).
100. The sense of duty and its influence on conduct.
101. True greatness.
102. The memory, and how to cultivate it.
103. Jealousy.
104. Discipline.
105. Mercy or Pity.
106. Self-sacrifice.
107. Benevolence.
108. Fear.
109. Eloquence as a power in the world.
110. The power of habit.
111. Piety.
112. Humility.
113. Duty.
114. Modesty.
115. Rashness.
116. Thoroughmess.
117. Sincerity.

(*b*) SOCIAL, POLITICAL, AND DOMESTIC TOPICS.

1. The advantages of passing a Matriculation Examination.
2. Holidays and how to spend them.
3. "Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home" (*The advantages and the interests of family life*).
4. Friendship.
5. The influence of good example.
6. Female education.
7. The study of Science.
8. The value of time (*Includes the importance of making a good use of one's time*).
9. The importance of the study of drawing.
10. "Virtue is its own reward" (*See* § 7).

11. "Many hands make light work" (*When a piece of work is distributed among many workers, it is easily accomplished. This is different from No.* 157.)
12. Famines.
13. "None are completely happy" (*Cf. "No rose without a thorn"*
14. Vegetarianism (*Living entirely on vegetable food*).
15. "Familiarity breeds contempt" (*Cf. "No man is a hero to his valet."*)
16. "Vice brings its own punishment" (*Vicious habits bring suffering upon those who indulge in them*).
17. Making the best of things (*To be resourceful in the face of misfortune or difficulty*).
18. The uses and advantages of foreign travel.
19. Death.
20. Education.
21. "Knowledge is Power" (Cf. *Bible, Prov. xxii*, 5; "*A wise man is strong*").
22. Where there is a will there is a way" (*If you are determined upon a business, you will find a means of carrying it out*).
23. The sources of happiness (1. *Health*; 2, *A competency*; 3. *Congenial work*; 4, *Family affection*; 5, *A good conscience.*)
24. Fame.
25. The benefits of commerce.
26. "Well begun is half done" (*In any work, if you make a good beginning, half your difficulties are over*).
27. The choice of a calling or profession.
28. The importance of the study of history.
29. "Penny wise and pound foolish" (*To be careful about small expenses or little matters, and to be careless about great ones*).
30. The effects of wealth on national character.
31. The choice of books.
32. "Slow and steady wins the race" (*Cf. the fable of the hare and the tortoise*).
33. Holidays & how to spend them.
34. Competitive Examinations.
35. "Fire is a good servant but a bad master" (*Fire is useful for cooking, etc., but if it gets beyond control, it may burn the house down*).
36. Borrowing money. (*Cf. Essay* 51)
37. The practice of keeping a diary.
38. Religious persecution (*Has it ever succeeded in its object?*)
39. "One man's meat is another man's poison" (*Different things suit different persons; people's tastes and dispositions vary*).
40. Conscience (*The extent of its authority. Does it require to be instructed?*)
41. Genius and talent compared.
42. "Better to wear out than to rust out" (*Cf. Scott*: "*One crowded hour of glorious life Is worth an age with out a name*" and Tennyson: "*Better twenty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay*"; and *No.* 279.)
43. Heredity (*The transmission of qualities, etc., from parents to their offspring. Compare its influence with that of environment.*)
44. Parliamentary government.
45. "A little learning is a dangerous thing" (*Imperfect knowledge of a subject leads to error, which is corrected by further knowledge*).
46. The Renaissance (or Revival of Learning).
47. The Stone and the Bronze

ages (*The period when stone-implements were used was succeeded by the period of bronze implements*).

48. "Honesy tis the best policy" (*See* § 7.)
49. The advantages to a native of India of a knowledge of English.
50. "A rolling stone gathers no moss" (*One who is changeable and erratic cannot thrive; keep to your choice—of subject for study, of profession, of place, of abode, etc.*)
51. How to spend one's leisure.
52. Poverty (*The poor man is—* 1. *Dependent on others,* 2. *Unable to provide for the future,* 3. *Limited in his enjoyments and aims*).
53. "Murder will out" (*A murderer is sure to be detected in the end. How far is this true?*).
54. Prosperity and adversity.
55. Civilisation, its blessings and its evils.
56. "Necessity is the mother of Invention" (*A man who needs must do a thing will find out a means of doing it*).
57. Oratory. (*See Essay* 46).
58. "To thine ownself be true" (*Follow the dictates of your higher nature; do what you know to be your duty*).
59. "Nothing venture, nothing have" (*Nothing of importance is achieved without some risk*).
60. Technical education.
61. Self-culture.
62. "Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just" (*A righteous cause is the best incentive to successful effort,*
63. "Know thyself" (*Make a study of your own character, aims, etc., with a view to self-discipline*).
64. Socialism (*Community of labour, land, and capital opposed to Individualism.*)
65. Hobbies (*Favourite pursuits*).
66. Archæology (*The science of ancient civilizations; their art, monuments, inscriptions, etc.*)
67. Opportunism (*Waiting upon opportunities; acting in accordance with circumstances.*)
68. Free trade and Protection.
69. Compulsory education (*If compulsory, it must be free*).
70. "Genius is an infinite capacity for taking pains" (*How far is this true*)."
71. Work and wages.
72. Family life.
73. The nationalisation of railways (*Should railways belong to the State? If so, on what principle?*).
74. The nationalisation of land (*Note that land is a natural monopoly*).
75. The use and abuse of ridicule.
76. Biography and autobiography (*Compare advantages and disadvantages; cf. Southey, Moore, Trevelyan, St. Augustine, Mill, Rousseau*).
77. The laws of war (*International laws or rules to regulate warfare; of what use?*)
78. School friendships.
79. The influence of climate on a nation's amusements.
80. The power of the tongue, the pen, and the sword compared.
81. The Indian student in England.
82. "There is nothing new under the sun" (*Man has no creative power; history repeats itself; but not true of scientific discoveries*).
83. Public opinion (*Cf.* "*Vox populi vox Dei*"; "*the voice of the people is the voice of God*").
84. The importance of little things.

85. The advantages and disadvantages of the adoption of a universal language (*Cf.* "*Volapuk*" and "*Esperanto*").
86. Luck and chance.
87. The power of custom.
88. Anonymous letters (*Discuss any cases where they are permissible*).
89. "Great honours are great burdens" (*High dignity brings cares and responsibilities; cf.* "*Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown*").
90. Democracy.
91. International disarmament (*Cf. Nos.* 109, 215, *and Essays* 41, 56).
92. "Little strokes fell great oaks" (*Patient assiduity overcomes all difficulties*).
93. Fashion.
94. Simple pleasures.
95. Public Meetings.
96. England, the mother of Parliaments.
97. "A stitch in time saves nine" (*Apply a remedy at once and so prevent future trouble*); (*Cf. No.* 124).
98. Religion and morality (*How far is morality based upon religion? Can morality exist alone?*).
99. Feudalism.
100. The promotion of peace (*Cf. No.* 91.)
101. Electioneering (*Its methods—fair and unfair, legal and illegal, right and wrong*).
102. School Inspection.
103. 'History is the biography of great men" (*History is made up of the doings of great men. How far true?*).
104. The study of foreign languages.
105. Town and country life compared.
106. Free education (*Cf. No.* 69).
107. Vivisection (*The dissection of live animals for medical or scientific purposes*).
108. Reverence for antiquity.
109. "Time is money" (*Time wasted might have been spent in earning something*).
110. "Honest labour bears a lovely face" (*Honourable toil is happy and praiseworthy*).
111. The spread of the English language.
112. "A straw shows which way the wind blows" (*But a trivial word or action is not always a guide to character*).
113. The influence of the Press.
114. "You must cut your coat according to your cloth" (*Do not go beyond your resources; spend according to your income*).
115. Childhood.
116. The power of kindness.
117. "The exception proves the rule" (*The exception* tests *the rule; that there are certain exceptions shows that a rule exists*).
118. Social equality (*Is it attainable?*)
119. "Self-trust is the first secret of success" (*Distinguish between a right and a wrong self-confidence*).
120. Commercial speculation (*Cf. Essays* 43, 51).
121. The introduction of gymnastics into schools.
122. The advantages and disadvantages of cheap literature.
123. The value of books (*Cf.* § 6).
124. "Prevention is better than cure" (*e.g., it is better to ward off a plague by good sanitation than to apply remedies after its appearance. Cf. No.* 237).
125. Soldiers (*Ranks and duties; voluntary service* v. *conscription; See No.* 164.)

126. Manhood.
127. "Make hay while the sun shines" (*When a good opportunity occurs, make use of it*; *Cf. Nos.* 136, 138, 150).
128. Arbitration as a substitute for war. (*See Essay* 41).
129. "A miss is as good as a mile." (*Whether you are within a little or much of gaining something, the result is the same. Is this always true?*)
130. "A penny saved is a penny gained" (*Be thrifty*; *little expences quickly mount up*; *use of savings bank*; *cf.* "*Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves*").
131. Dealing by interviews and by correspondence compared.
132. "The tongue is an unruly evil" (*Cf. Nos.* 80, 210).
133. "The burnt child dreads the fire" (*A painful experience makes us cautious in the future*).
134. Bargaining.
135. Sleep.
136. "Strike while the iron is hot" (*See No.* 127).
137. Money.
138. "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush" (*Take what you can get*; *future gains are uncertain*; *Cf. No.* 127).
139. The use and abuse of speech (*Cf. No.* 132).
140. The benefit a man derives from having to work for his living.
141. "More haste, less speed" (*Doing a thing quickly often means doing it badly.*)
142. Early marriages.
143. Indian vernacular literature and its improvement.
144. The advantages of the study of geography.
145. "Rome was not built in a day" (*Do not expect to achieve great things in a short time*).
146. Bores.
147. "Every man is the architect of his own fortune" (*You must depend upon yourself for success*).
148. A debating society.
149. Conversation.
150. "Time and tide wait for no man" (*Make use of an opportunity*; *it may not recur*: *Cf. No.* 127).
151. Capital punishment (*Should it be abolished?*).
152. Bribery.
153. The shortness of life.
154. Old age.
155. The right employment of our time.
156. "Union is strength" (*When men combine, they may accomplish much*).
157. Division of labour (*Apportioning the separate parts of a work to separate workers, Point out its advantages and disadvantages.*)
158. Desultory habits.
159. School education and private tuition compared.
160. Phonetic spelling (*Spelling words as they are pronounced; describe its advantages and drawbacks*) (*Cf. No.* 228.)
161. "All that glitters is not gold" (*Outward appearances are deceptive*).
162. The advantages and disadvantages of Britain's being an island (*Cf. IV*, (*a*), 134.)
163. Our rights and duties in relations to animals.
164. Conscription (*Compulsory military service*; *advantages and disadvantages see Nos.* 125, 215.)
165. Teetotalism.
166. Bimetalism (*The use of both*

silver and gold money as standards of value).

167. Millionaires (*Are they beneficial or harmful to the community?*).
168. Ideals of character.
169. The divine right of kings.
170. Representative government.
171. State-patronage.
172. Imperialism (1. *true, moral* 2. *false, materialistic. Cf.* "*Jingoism*").
173. The influence of Shakspeare 1. *Extent*; 2. *Causes*; *his broad, human sympathy*; *his expressiveness*; *his knowledge of character and life*).
174. Misers (*How does miserliness differ from thrift? Cf. the Elweses*).
175. Advice and advising.
176. Sanitation.
177. The difference between wit and humour (*Wit is coldly intellectual*; *humour has warmth of feeling. Wit is sharp and subtle, humour is genial and sympathetic*; *wit sparkles*; *humour glows*).
178. Old age pensions.
179. Essay-writing
180. Precis-writing.
181. The pleasures of school life,
182. "No smoke without some fire" (*Often false*; *a slander may have no foundation whatever*).
183. Corporal punishment (*In schools, the army and navy, jails, etc.*).
184. "Half a loaf is better than no bread" (*A little is better than nothing*).
185. "God helps those who help themselves" (*Self-help is the way to success in life. Cf.* (*No.* 138).
186. Interest and usury.
187. How do games educate?
188. Recreation.
189. Authors and publishers (*Their mutual relations; do their interests clash?*).
190. Methods of raising levies for war (*Cf. No.* 164, *and the Highland* "*fiery cross*"; *the* "*press-gang*").
191. The life of savages (*See* §11).
192. Village life.
193. Symbolism.
194. Heraldry.
195. Ventilation.
196. Poet laureates.
197. Duelling.
198. Infanticide.
199. Nihilism.
200. Health and its preservation.
201. Was the execution of Charles I. justifiable?
202. "Live and learn" (*Experience is a good teacher*).
203. The importance of utilizing acquired knowledge.
204. Game preservation.
205. The treatment of juvenile criminals.
206. The duties of voters.
207. Fatalism.
208. Holiday tasks.
209. Books for recreation (1. *Travel*, 2. *Biography*, 3. *Fiction*).
210. The power of words (*For good or evil; conversation and gossip; scandal. Cf. No.* 132).
211. "Let the cobbler stick to his last" (*Do not meddle in matters that are outside your province*).
212. Triennial, as opposed to septennial, Parliaments.
213. Fasting (1. *Religious*, 2. *Medicinal*, 3. *Experimental*).
214. "You cannot eat your cake and have your cake" (*All gains are made at some sacrifice*).
215. Militarism (*The military spirit. No.* 91).
216. The modern growth of newspapers (*Causes*: 1. *Print*

ing by steam-power; 2. Electric telegraph; 3. Easy and rapid conveyance; 4. Shorthand writing).

217. Colonization (*Methods; benefits or disadvantages; examples*)
218. Speed in travelling (*Steam; electricty; the bicycle, the motor-car, the aeroplane. Its advantages and drawbacks. Cf Essay. 74*).
219. "All's well that ends well" (*Previous disappointments do not matter, so long as one succeeds in the end*).
220. The qualifications of Members of Parliament (1. *Leisure;* 2. *Speech-power;* 3. *Interest in his constituency;* 4. *Political knowledge;* 5. *Business habits and capacity*).
221. Rank (*Why is it admired and sought? What are its effects and duties?*).
222. The inconvenience of greatness (*Cf. No.* 89).
223. Competition in trade (*Advantages; drawbacks; sweating, etc.*).
224. Dreams (*Their origin, nature, and value; Biblical examples*)
225. The study of nature (*Cf. No.* 235).
225. The value of a good name (*Cf. laws against libel*).
227. National characteristics.
228. English spelling reform (*Why needed; advantages; any drawbacks. Cf. No.* 160).
229. Accidents (*Define; their effects; give historical instances*
230. The study of English literature in schools.
231. Martyrdom.
232. Is untruth ever justifiable? (*Cf. replies to dangerous or to inquisitive persons; sick room deceptions; society conventions*).
233. The moral value of proverbs. (*Note any doubtful, inaccurate, or mischievous proverbs; see Nos.* 48, 53, 70, 82, 112, 117, 129, 147, 182).
234. School punishments and rewards.
235. The value of Nature study in education (*Cf. No.* 225).
236. The payment of members of Parliament (*Advantages and drawbacks; amount*).
237. "It is vain to shut the stable door after the horse is stolen" (*Precautions are useless after the event. Cf. No.* 124).
238. Asceticism (1 *Buddhist;* 2. *Hindu;* 3. *Greek;* 4. *Christian*).
239. "Sweet are the uses of adversity."
240. The value of home training.
241. The influence of literature in refining the manners and life of a people.
242. The influence of his times upon a poet.
243. "He makes no friend who never made a foe" (*Dignity, self-respect, strength of character, needed for friendship, often produce enmity*).
244. Government by Party.
245. The subordination of private interests to the public good.
246. The endowment of research (*Should the expenses of experiments, etc. be paid out of the public funds?*).
247. The preservation of the monuments of the past (*e.g., ancient historic buildings*).
248. Strikes and Government intervention (*Cf. Essay* 64).
249. A comparison of Alfred the Great with William the Conqueror.
250. The advantages and disadvantages of boarding schools (*Cf. No.* 159).
251. Should we have a state-supported theatre?

252. The best poems for children.
253. The giving of alms (*Cf.* § 6).
254. "Let sleeping dogs lie" (*Do not raise opposition unnecessarily; do not meddle with a difficult question that can wait*).
255. "I am never less lonely than when I am alone" (*Cf. Milton's "Solitude sometimes is best society"*).
256. Westminster Abbey.
257. Naval Warfare in the past and at the present day.
258. Compulsory Vaccination (*Cf.* § 18).
259. The relation of a liberal education to life.
260. Thoughts suggested by the sight of the sea.
261. The possibility of an invasion of Britain.
262. The respective advantages of a literary and of a scientific education.
263. International antipathies.
264. French and English characteristics as represented in Shakespeare's *Henry V.*
265. "To do a great right, do a little wrong" (*The dangers underlying this proposition*).
266. Every great poet is a teacher (*Cf. Shakespeare, Shelley, Wordsworth, Browning*).
267. The place of England in the history of European civilization (*Religious toleration, the support of weak nationalities, slave emancipation, political reform, the Royal Society*).
268. The effect of poverty on character (*Cf.* No. 52).
269. The influence of climate on amusements.
270. "A word spoken is an arrow let fly" (*It cannot be recalled; it may do harm unintentionally. Cf.* No. 210).
271. The pleasures of a country life as enhanced by a study of physical science.
272. "A lie which is half a truth is ever the blackest of lies" (*Cf.* No. 182).
273. The remedies for overcrowding in large cities.
274. "Let me make the ballads, and let who will make the laws of a nation.
275. The causes of the migration from the country to the towns.
276. "As you make your bed so you must lie on it" (*We are responsible for the results of our actions*).
277. The value of a good physique in modern life.
278. Talent and character.
279. "We live in deeds not years" (*Life should be rated not by its length, but by its achievement. Cf.* No. 42.)
280. Race problems in the united States of America (*The negro question; the incorporation of the foreign European element; Asiatic immigration*).
281. "Evil is wrought by want of thought as well as want of heart" (*Want of consideration for others causes as much unhappiness as deliberate unkindness; e.g. children thoughtlessly torture animals*).
282. Back to the land (*Cf.* No. 74).
283. "Literature is a good crutch but a very bad walking-stick" (*Make authorship your avocation, not your vocation; do not rely on it for a living*).
284. Government monopolies (*e.g. lucifer matches in France*).
285. Cambridge and Oxford compared.
286. Has commercial enterprise done more to promote peace or to promote war

between nations ?
287. Your idea of a happy life.
288. The distinction between vanity and conceit.
289. " Conscience makes cowards of us all " (*The consciousness of guilt makes people nervous and apprehensive. Cf. Macbeth, and* No. 40).
290. The study of modern languages.
291. The development of religious toleration in Europe.
292. The influence of Puritanism on literature and the drama.
293. The distinction between courage and rashness.
294. Popular superstitions.
295. Managing a flower-garden.
296. Palmistry.
297. Realism and Idealism.
298. The recovery of lost articles.
299. " Peace hath her victories no less renowned than war" (*Victories over nature, disease, ignorance, oppression, etc.*).
300. Chivalry.
301. The effects of the crusades.
302. " A man is known by the company he keeps."
303. The best way of spending a million pounds to benefit the poor of a large town.
304. Which do you consider the greatest of the queens of England, and why ?
305. " Take time by the forelock " (*Utilise your opportunities. Cf.* No. 127).
306. The revival of the Olympic Games.
307. " There are two sides to every question " (*Cf. the story of the two knights and the shield. Does this justify compromises ?*).
308. " Travel is a part of education " (*Cf Essay* 74).
309. The vanity of human grandeur
310. National prejudice.
311. Henry VIII. ; his merits and defects as a ruler.
312. The virtues and the failings of the Stuart dynasty.
313. " A fool and his money are soon parted " (*Be careful in spending*).
314. The British occupation of Egypt.
315. The *All-Red* route.
316. " The virtue of prosperity is temperance " - (*Shun the pride or arrogance of success*).
317. The decline of great nations (*Causes. Cf. Assyria, Persia, Rome, Spain.* Cf. § 13.).
318. The horrors of civil war.
319. The drama and the novel as vehicles of education.
320. " He is a freeman whom the truth makes free " (" *Truth* " *is freedom from passion; self-knowledge, self-control*).
321. Stupid people.
322. Votes for women.
323. The conflict and blending of races in the British Isles.
324. Epitaphs.
325. The future of the English language.
326. " The heights by great men reached and kept were not attained by sudden flight." (*The virtue of hard work; the need of industry and perseverance. Cf.* No. 70).
327. The state of religion in England in the 14th century.
328. " Count not your chickens before they are hatched " (*Do not forestall success; wait for results*).
329. The relative advantages of health, wealth, and wisdom.
330. To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace. (*The fallacy of this proposition*).
331. The rise and development of representative government in England.

332. The growth of democracy in the 19th Century. *(Cf. the gradual decay of the Feudal System all over Europe)*
333. The advantages of "Summer Time" or ("Daylight Saving").
334. "Trade follows the flag" *(But wars are waged in behalf of a nation's commerce. Cf. the East India Company, England's wars with China, etc.).*

IV. EXPOSITORY ESSAYS.

(a) Institutions, Industries, Occupations, etc.

1. A festival.
2. A marriage.
3. A fair.
4. Theatrical performances.
5. Asiatic and European dress contrasted.
6. Funeral rites.
7. University Examinations.
8. The game of chess.
9. Hindu Castes.
10. The slave-trade (*Origin; need of labourers in tropical countries; Cf. Fox, Penn, Clarkson, Wilberforce; and Essay* 53).
11. International Exhibitions.
12. The game of cricket.
13. Emigration.
14. Steamships.
15. An Eastern city bazaar.
16. Market day in a town.
17. Privateering (*Cruising by private persons to seize an enemy's ships*).
18. Pearl fisheries.
19. Cremation.
20. Savings banks.
21. The game of polo.
22. Jubilees.
23. The British navy.
24. Gymnastic exercises.
25. Public (free) libraries.
26. Hypnotism.
27. The art of printing.
28. Trade and commerce.
29. Professions.
30. The Permanent Settlement.
31. Learning to swim.
32. Snake-charming.
33. An out-door game.
34. The school at which I study.
35. The manufacture of silk.
36. The games of Indian schoolboys.
37. The bazaar of an Indian village.
38. The life of a peasant.
39. Indian jugglers.
40. Tea-planting.
41. Coffee-planting.
42. Brick-making.
43. Gold-mining.
44. The abolition of slavery in the British Empire.
45. The fine arts.
46. The mint.
47. Paper-making.
48. Whale-fishing.
49. Copyright in books.
50. Exhibitions.
51. Banks and banking.
52. Statistics.
53. Improvements in locomotion.
54. The East India Company.
55. Taxation.
56. Polygamy.
57. Machinery.
58. Music.
59. Games of chance and skill compared.
60. Travelling to-day and sixty years ago (*Cf.* § 5 *and*
61. Sea-voyages. [*Essay* 74).
62. Nature study.
63. Modern inventions.
64. Field sports.
65. The characteristics of modern warfare (*See Essay* 67).
66. Public Gardens.
67. Engineering.
68. Your favourite occupation.
69. A college.

70. Sledging and tobogganing.
71. Gardening.
72. Tunnels and tunnelling.
73. The taming of animals.
74. The races inhabiting India.
75. A visit to England, or to India.
76. The importance of good hand-writing.
77. Collecting postage stamps.
78. Historic London.
79. Sati (or Suttee).
80. Object lessons.
81. Commercial credit.
82. Gipsies.
83. Ships old and new.
84. Titles of honour.
85. The Mohurrum.
86. A Coronation.
87. The Juggernaut (or Jaganath [festival)
88. A public school.
89. Soap manufacture.
90. Trial by jury.
91. An Indian Durbar.
92. Performing animals.
93. Road-making.
94. The currency.
95. Government service
96. A prize distribution.
97. Zoological gardens.
98. Picture Galleries.
99. Monuments.
100. Botanical gardens.
101. Waterworks.
102. Hospitals.
103. Manufactures.
104. Riding.
105. The medical profession.
106. Charitable dispensaries.
107. Masters and servants.
108. Capital punishment.
109. Secret societies.
110. The police.
111. The zenana.
112. The Cabinet (or Ministry).
113. The Government of India.
114. Clubs.
115. House-building.
116. Railways.
117. Athletic sports.
118. Smuggling.
119. Piracy.
120. Architecture, ancient and modern.
121. Life Insurance (*See* § 18).
122. Mountaineering.
123. How fire aided primitive man (*Used for making dug-outs, pottery, etc; for lighting his cave; for scaring away wild beasts; torch-light fishing and hunting*).
124. Trusts (*A trust is a combination of rival firms into one organisation, in order to secure a monopoly, and so keep up prices*).
125. Slums (*Caused by people's clinging to the towns in order to get work; hence over-crowding and poverty from over-competition for employment. Legal remedies—Housing and Small-holdings Acts*).
126. The uses of fire in modern times.
127. Republics, ancient and modern.
128. The causes of failure in business.
129. The causes of failure at school or college. (*Neglect of health; over-study; desultory work; self-conceit; want of method, etc.*).
130. Camping-out.
131. Japanese art.
132. The South Sea Bubble.
133. A Levee.
134. The natural advantages of England [1. *Position*; 2. *Insularity*; 3. *Climate*; 4. *Soil*; 5. *Mineral productiveness*; 6. *Physical conformation*: *mountains rivers, harbours, etc. Cf.*, III, (b), 162].
135. Sea-power; its influence in history.
136. The origin and growth of the British army (*In Anglo-Saxon and in feudal times*;

under Cromwell; the Mutiny Bill).

137. The Monroe doctrine (*That America is no longer to be a colonising ground for, or subject to the political interference of, any European power. How does this doctrine affect either power?*).
138. The causes of the decay of nations.
139. Serfdom and its abolition.
140. The Mercantile System. (*Its theory that money is the only wealth*).
141. The partition of Africa]*Cf.* III. (*b*)].
142. The Delhi durbar, Jan. 1, 1878.
143. The Eastern Question. (*The fate of the Turkish Empire*).
144. Second Parliamentary Chambers.
145. Modern scientific progress.
146. Seal fishing.
147. Reform, political and social; the proper principles to follow, and the proper cautions to observe, in promoting it.
148. How does University teaching differ from School teaching.
149. Knighthood in the Middle ages.
150. The dissolution of the monasteries.
151. The influence of rivers upon human intercourse.
152. Making a collection of natural objects.
153. American Indians.
154. Substitutes for paper before its invention.
155. A School Magazine
156. Banking
157. Historic pageants.
158. Canadian industries
159. Light-ships.
160. Winter sports in Switzerland.
161. Keeping accounts (*Why important; a check on ex-*
162. Electric trams. [*penditure*).
163. Municipal trading (*Arguments for and against*).
164. How to make a kite and how to fly it.
165. Foreign trade competition.
166. Private theatricals.
167. Street locomotion (*Walking; man-propelled, horse-drawn, engine-driven, electricity-driven vehicles*).
168. How to mend a puncture in a rubber tube.
169. The relation between commerce and national progress.
170. The carrying trade of Eng-
171. Fur and feathers. [land.
172. The Congo and its administration.
173. The products and commerce of Scotland.
174. The problem of national defence in England.
175. The attractions of Egypt as a place to visit.
176. The housing of the poor.
177. Rustic sports.
178. Parliamentary Elections.
179. Indoor amusements and their value.
180 Life in a British Colony.
181. The inventions of the future.
182. The growth of the British Empire.
183. England in 1837 and in 1917.
184. A town or a parish council election.
185. Motor vehicles (*For business, for pleasure; buses, lorries, taxis, cars, "tanks"; danger to traffic; effect on the road; possible future uses*).
186. Naval supremacy in Europe from the earliest times
187. The characteristics of your ideal friend.
188. The pleasnres and the pains of athletics.
189. An imaginary conversation

regarding man between two of the lower animals.
190. The products, manufactures, and commerce of Spain and Portugal.
191. The cities of northern Italy.
192. Inventions and discoveries in the 19th century.
193. The newspaper: the chief kinds of reading that it contains, and for what each is valuable.
194. The problem of the "unemployed."
195. The future of Africa.

(*b*) SCIENTIFIC TOPICS.

1. The telephone.
2. Eclipses.
3. Rain and its uses.
4. The mariner's compass.
5. Glaciers.
6. Evolution.
7. Magnetism.
8. Vaccination (*See* § 18).
9. Steam amd its uses.
10. Clouds.
11. Cyclones.
12. Water-spouts.
13. The trade winds.
14. Lightning-conductors.
15. Gas.
16. Submarines.
17. Any scientific experiment.
18. Respiration.
19. The solar system.
20. The Gulf Stream.
21. Forestry.
22. The tides.
23. The thermometer.
24. The progress of science.
25. The rainbow.
26. Cork and its uses.
27. India-rubber.
28. Mountains and their uses
28. Mountains and their uses. (1. *Cause rain*; 2. *Produce streams*; 3. *Wash down soil*; 4. *Affect climate*; 5. *Form* [*boundaries*).
29. Telescopes.
30. Balloons.
31. Aeroplanes (*Cf. Essay* 70).
32. Rivers and their uses.
33. Food.
34. Water.
35. The monsoon.
36. The barometer.
37. Radium.
38. The liver.
39. The Rontgen rays (or X
40. The moon. [rays).
41. The planets.
42. Icebergs.
43. Comets.
44. Geysers.
45. Earthquakes.
46. Gravitation.
47. Wireless telegraphy.
48. Submarine telegraphy.
49. Ocean currents.
50. Snow.
51. The signs of the weather.
52. The atmosphere.
53. The causes of difference of climate within the United Kingdom.
54. A geographical excursion.
55. The cinematograph.
56. The future of electricity.
57. "The fairy tales of Science."

(*c*) LITERARY TOPICS.

1. Proverbs *See* III, (*b*), 233; *Cf.* "*A proverb is the wisdom of many and the wit of one*"].
2. Newspapers.
3. The Lake poets.
4. Epic poetry.
5. The ode.
6. The poetry of Byron.
7. English satirical writers.
8. Indian novel-writers.
9. Kipling's writings.
10. Cowper's "Task."
11. The play of Macbeth."
12. Your favourite book.
13. The different kinds of poetry.
14. The use and abuse of quotations (*Cf.* § 58).
15. The differences in character between prose and poetry.

(*Prose appeals to the intellect; poetry to the emotions*).

16. Poetic metre and rhythm.
17. The influence of the Bible on English literature.
18. The Waverley novels.
19. Classical and Romantic poetry.
20. A poem you have read.
21. The different kinds of poetry.
22. The poetry of Wordsworth.
23. Literary criticism.
24. Great prose writers.
25. The great poets of the world.
26. The poetry of Pope.
27. The great histories.
28. The Elizabethan dramatists.
29. The elements of a good style.
30. Patriotic poems in English literature.
31. Shylock's place in "The Merchant of Venice"
32. Novels of adventure and novels of character.
33. Addison's "Spectator."
34. Boswell's "Life of Johnson."
35. Ballad literature.
36. English sonnet-writers.
37. Milton's "Comus."
38. Tennyson and Browning compared.
39. Essays and essay-writers.
40. The allegory in literature.
41. Abbotsford and Olney.
42. William Blake, poet and artist.
43. The interest that literature derives from the revelation of the author's character in his work.
44. Didactic poetry.
45. Which is the greater poet, Wordsworth or Tennyson?
46. The humour and pathos of Lamb's Essays.
47. The character of Edmund in Shakespeare's "King Lear."
48. The Scottish covenanters as depicted by Scott.
49. Novels of adventure.
50. Faery lore.
51. The Holy Grail.
52. The sonnet in English literature.
53. The appetite for novel-reading and its causes.
54. The finest character in fiction with which you are acquainted.
55. The charm of poetry.
56. The novel "with a purpose."
57. Some character in fiction.
58. "The Arabian Nights."
59. An account of any one novel by Geo. Eliot, Marryat, or R. L. Stevenson.
60. "Kenilworth" as history.
61. A comparison between any two great English allegories or elegies.
62. Town and Country as subjects of poetry.
63. Books of travel.
64. One of Shakespeare's tragedies.
65. Autumn as pictured in English poetry.
66. One of the following characters: Robinson Crusoe, Don Quixote, Samuel Weller, Isaac of York, Colonel Newcome, Banquo, Maggie Tulliver, Capt. Dalgetty, King Lear, Dominic Sampson, Smike, Mr. Pecksniff, Caleb Balderstone, Catriona, Tom Brown, Little Dorrit, Rodney Stone, Elizabeth Bennet, Capt. Cuttle, Elaine, Malvolio, Roland Yorke, Edie Ochiltree, Sir Roger de Coverley.
67. Contrast Dickens with Thackeray.
68. "The Fair Maid of Perth."
69. Write a short review of any well-known novel.
70. Esmond's impressions of Malborough.
71. The social condition of Rome as represented in Shakespeare's "Coriolanus."
72. The Celtic, the Welsh, and the Highland character as portrayed by Shakespeare and Scott.
73. The poetry of Milton.

INDEX

The references are to the sections.